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10.8.20

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Bureau	Edm.	Research
DATE	10.8.70	1000 1000
Dated	10.8.70	59
Acct. No.		

THE ELEMENTARY *SCHOOL JOURNAL*

EMPHASIZING INSTRUCTION
ADMINISTRATION • SOCIAL CHANGE

PUBLISHED BY

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO AT THE
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS

*

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SEPTEMBER, 1952—MAY, 1953

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
CHICAGO ILLINOIS

PUBLISHED SEPTEMBER, OCTOBER, NOVEMBER, DECEMBER, 1952
JANUARY, FEBRUARY, MARCH, APRIL, MAY, 1953

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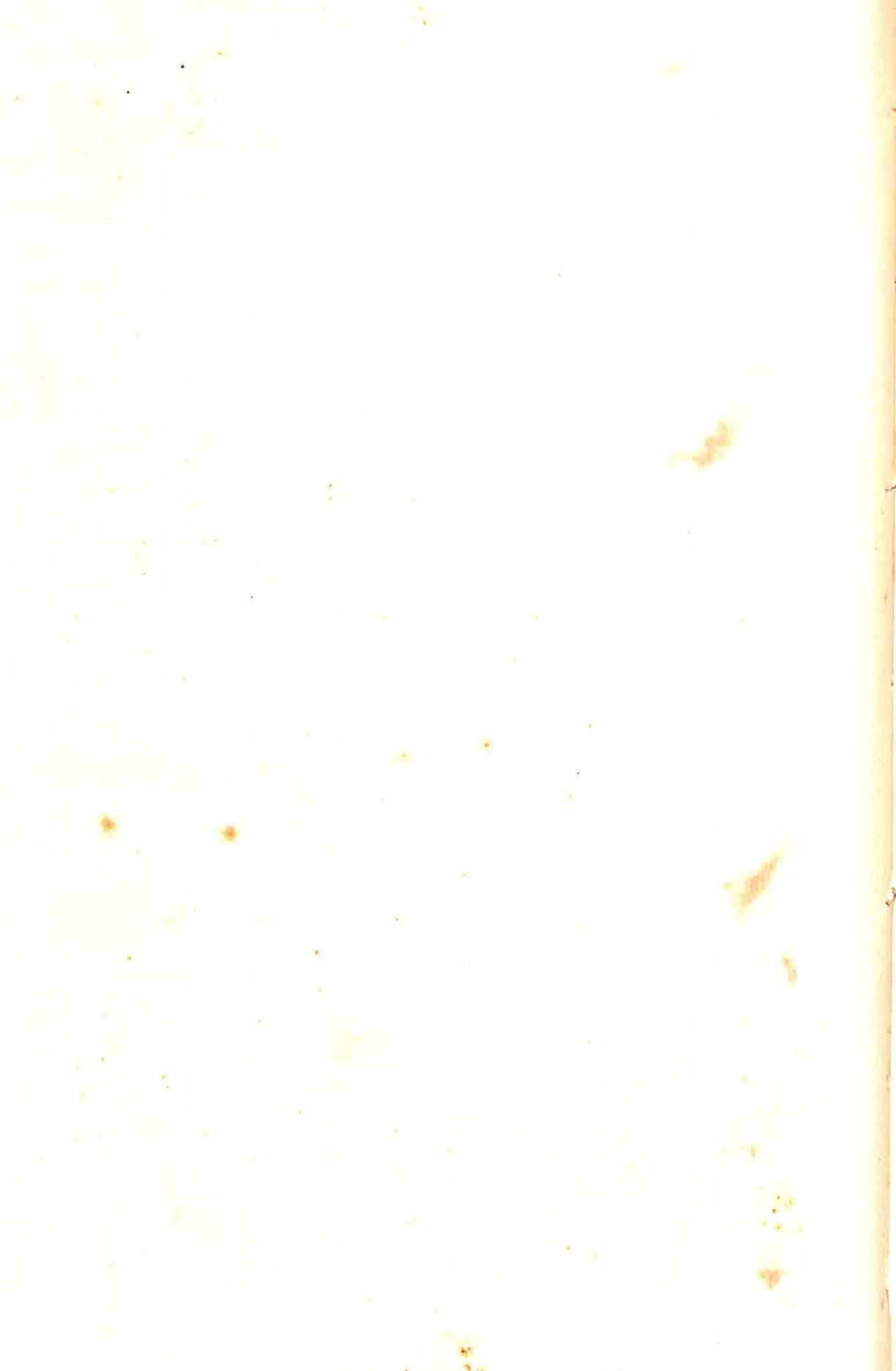
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THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL

Volume LIII

*

JANUARY 1953

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Number 5

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING IN ACCEPTED STATEMENTS OF DEMOCRATIC BELIEF

IN THE PAST DECADE, more and more attention has been focused on translating the word "democracy" into terms of daily living in the school life of the child. It is realized that to teach about democracy and not to practice it results in mere lip service. Only as much of democracy as the child has an opportunity to practice and live will become part of his thinking and acting. Since opportunities for practice are all around us, we should find it easy to let the children "live" democracy. However, the change from an authoritarian type of school to a democratic type involves drastic changes in thinking, planning, and acting. The teacher is beset with problems when he tries to spell out the implications for teaching and learning that are involved in widely accept-

ed statements of democratic belief.

As an example, suppose this statement is selected and examined for only a few of its implications: "Democracy recognizes that every individual has worth and dignity." When considered in relation to children, this statement means that each child is an individual and has worth and dignity. If he has worth, then the teaching must be geared to him as an individual. Since he is an individual, he is different from other children in the rate at which he develops and in the pattern along which he develops. Differences in rate of physical development can easily be seen. Differences in rate of development in mastering reading skills, skills involved in communication, arithmetical skills, and the like, while not so evident to the eye, are still there.

Since there are variations in rates of learning and in achievement, how does the teacher set up a school program to

meet that situation? One thing is evident: it excludes teaching of a roomful of pupils as one group, especially in areas involving skills. Many primary-grade teachers have recognized this fact. Teachers of intermediate and succeeding grades have even more need to recognize it, since the differences in achievement become greater rather than less as children progress. In the small area of word comprehension alone, the range in achievement, according to standardized tests, may be as much as six or seven years in the same age group. The wide range is not confined to word comprehension; it is also evident in every phase of academic work and is of special concern where skills are involved.

How to meet this range is a problem. Individual teaching is out of the question in terms both of time and of energy. Also, individual teaching would rob the child of social experiences, and he needs to live and work with the others.

Small groups working together is one answer, but that, too, has pitfalls. Dividing the class into groups labeled "A," "B," and "C," or "1," "2," and "3," or "Robins," "Bluebirds," and "Canaries," or whatever the designation, may be more defeating than helpful to learning. If these groupings become fixed, the children in the lower groups will soon be referring to themselves as "dummies." They become discouraged; there is little stimulation from one another; they lose interest. Frequently, ambitious parents bring undue pressure to

bear on a child to get him out of the "dummy" group. The human element—how the child feels about his place in the setup—is of definite importance to his self-confidence and his feeling about his worth, to his learning, and to the teacher's success in teaching.

Fluidity in grouping is a means of avoiding the pitfalls of fixed grouping. A child is not assigned to the same group "for keeps" but works with different groups on different problems, whether in reading skills, arithmetic computation, written work, or whatever. A child may work for a limited time with a group whose achievement is markedly greater than his and find it a stimulating experience.

Giving the child who feels insecure an opportunity to choose the group that he wishes to work with rather than having the teacher assign him is often helpful. He may even work beyond the normal expectation for him since he has made his own choice. In like manner, many a child has found that he was beyond his depth and voluntarily decided to work with another group. The child can accept this transfer with dignity and an appreciation of self that would not have been his if the teacher had assigned him to the group.

It is very important for teacher and pupils to discuss the idea of grouping, if it is new to the class, before any division is made. The teacher presents his reasons; the children express their reactions. Important, too, is a discussion of where each child excels. Not all excel in all fields, but every child has

to have some place where he "shines." Some do excellent art work, some are good in athletics, some in arithmetic, some in leadership, some in reading, some in dramatics. Yes, some even excel in being nuisances.

Supposing a teacher arranges for groups to work at different tasks and also allows for fluidity in grouping, then what? Teachers sometimes say, "I would like to work with smaller groups, but what do you do with the other pupils? The children who are not with me talk all the time."

The Association for Childhood Education International (1200 Fifteenth Street, N.W., Washington 5, D.C.) has recently published its Bulletin Number 90, *Children Can Work Independently*, which contains valuable material for teachers seeking an answer to this question. Teachers, supervisors, directors, and counselors have contributed to this bulletin and, by anecdotal accounts, have shown how teachers are proceeding to help children become independent.

One section by Mary Harbage, director of elementary education at Akron, Ohio, describes how a plan was set up involving three work groups in reading, so that each child had a share of the teacher's time and also had an adequate opportunity to work experimentally and creatively with materials. The account lists some of the things to be done "experimentally and creatively" by those who are working independently. There are suggestions for all elementary-school grades.

In another section of the bulletin, "Priceless Materials," Robbie Ruth Young and Gladys Robison, of the public schools at Port Arthur, Texas, present lists of what might be considered discards, such as cartons, ice-cream cups, spools, crepe paper, which in the primary grades "provide the opportunity for children to have freedom in choice of work; . . . provide means for independent work activities—activities that are purposeful and are fun to do."

The intermediate-grade teacher, who is pressed for time to prepare materials for independent work periods, faces the problem of using prepared materials, such as workbooks, to supplement teacher-made materials. Ruby M. Schuyler, curriculum counselor in the public schools of Glencoe, Illinois, has prepared one section of the bulletin on "Good Use of Workbooks." She gives suggestions to teachers on the selection of such books and presents guides to their judicious use. On the problem of meeting individual differences when using workbooks, she states: "Not only should a workbook be paced to the learning level of the child, but it should also be selected to meet his specific needs."

The last part of the bulletin is a collection of "Anecdotal accounts from classrooms everywhere," describing how many teachers are helping children achieve satisfying independence. The bulletin ends with this statement:

These anecdotal accounts prove that children can work independently—the examples range from kindergarten through sixth grade.

They show how groups carry on committee work, how they learn to set standards, how they co-operate in all-school projects. Indoors or outdoors, following an area of interest being developed in the classroom, or choosing activities for free-choice times—*children can work independently.*

The teacher, by this time, has some answers to the problem of spelling out the implications involved in commonly accepted statements of democratic beliefs. Are there others?

If a child is to progress satisfactorily at his own rate and in his own pattern, he needs to live and work in a harmonious atmosphere. Co-operative planning and working help achieve harmony. Children learn to assume responsibilities and work together when they have a part in the daily planning. A part in the planning gives the child a feeling of importance. He feels that what he says and does is of interest to the group and to the teacher.

Teacher-pupil planning affords the teacher illuminating information on the feelings and attitudes of individual children. It gives him an insight into some of the home teachings and the home values. The children, on the other hand, profit from an opportunity for expression. There is also the friendly, sympathetic feeling of teacher for child, and child for teacher, when each can present his problems and together work out solutions.

Many teachers have indicated that they would like to have children take part in the planning, but they do not know how to begin. A bulletin, *How Children and Teachers Work Together*,

by Elsa Schneider (Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Bulletin 1952, No. 14) has many suggestions for teacher-pupil planning. The Foreword states:

This bulletin presents in the main a viewpoint based on the belief that if children live in a friendly school environment rich with experiences and materials that stimulate curiosity, and with adult guidance that senses the depth and direction of the curiosity and the possibilities that lie within it and at the same time recognizes the needs for development inherent in every child, desirable growth will result.

Miss Schneider states the importance of co-operative planning thus:

The teacher who works well with children recognizes that in our country it is extremely important that people learn how to plan their lives well and to work and live in harmony with others. She knows that children can best develop the skills and qualities essential to happy and successful living in a day-by-day atmosphere which involves thoughtful planning.

Most of the bulletin is given over to "examples of some of the things that are happening in schools as children and teachers work together to accomplish purposes that are important to them as individuals and as members of a group." There is a description of how one group and teacher worked together on things of concern to the whole school. In this case, the eighth-grade pupils made a list of things that the school needed and then proceeded to take steps to provide them or to interest outside groups in providing them. The range of examples is from kindergarten to eighth grade.

A section "On Ways To Use 'Free' Time" includes a case that had to do with solving the playground problem when play space was inadequate for the number who wanted to play. In this instance, the student council representatives, with a teacher as consultant, worked out the problem.

Just as teachers are learning how to carry on co-operative planning, so children must learn, too. It is not equally easy for all. As Miss Schneider says:

In the process of working together, the teacher comes to know which children are able to plan and work with relative thoroughness, to recognize those who plan enthusiastically but fail to carry through, to give special consideration to those who feel lost or overwhelmed when placed in a position where they are expected to contribute ideas, make decisions, and carry through responsibility.

As the teacher and children work together, the "wordy" ones learn how to organize their thinking so that they can make pertinent remarks: the "shy" develop confidence; the overambitious, the aggressive, and the overconfident become more co-operative; the "lazy" are challenged. All learn the importance of using foresight in planning, the need for finding information from many sources that will help increase their understanding, the value of making decisions based on information that seems to be sound, and the necessity for constant evaluation. They learn that as they evaluate, their plans may change.

In such an atmosphere of day-to-day thoughtful planning, children have opportunities to increase their ability to plan their lives well and to acquire those learnings which will enable them to get along well with other children and with adults.

ADMINISTRATOR-TEACHER PLANNING

DEMOCRACY may have a better chance to become a part of daily living through administrator-teacher planning, as well as through skilful teacher-pupil planning. However, adult groups have as much to learn on their level as children have on theirs before co-operative planning can be carried on effectively. Productive co-operative planning does not result from the mere gathering together of administrators and teachers.

In the October, 1952, issue of *Strengthening Democracy*, published by the Board of Education of New York City, Henry Antell, principal of Junior High School 54 in Manhattan, presents an article on "Levels of Participation in School Administration." He states:

Whether by fiat or not, it is an unmistakable fact that more and more teachers are being called upon to participate in school administration. It is a trend not to be denied. Business discovered quite a while ago that employee morale improves when the employees have a knowledge of what their specific function is in making the total product. Inner councils of workers assisting management in setting up matters of policy have further increased efficiency and added to industrial output.

Educators have been postulating that those who are affected by decisions should have a hand in making them. Those who have utilized teacher talents and abilities for service beyond the classroom have probably become enthusiastic about the possibilities. Some others have stirred a hornet's nest by leading teachers to become aware of their added responsibilities in serving as advisers

to the principal. There have, undoubtedly, been mixed reactions.

Not all administrators and teachers have had experience enough to know how to get the most from combined efforts:

Many a principal, and even more teachers, have become discouraged at the workings of the [Teachers] Council. . . . What is needed is a science of collaboration. We have neglected to provide principal and teachers with practical helps so that the process will work.

The article discusses various levels at which co-operative endeavors of supervisor and teacher function. The lowest level is that where the council becomes a "gripe session." While this may seem a discouraging start, Antell feels that it is a healthy one because "during these sessions, the council members will learn why certain school regulations exist. They will have access to by-laws and directives which prescribe a frame of reference within which school administration operates."

The highest level is that at which "all the teachers in the school assume a thoroughly professional attitude in all their decisions" and the teachers' council decisions become binding. Between the two levels are steps and gradations which are briefly described.

CO-OPERATIVE PLANNING AND REPORT CARDS

CO-OPERATIVE PLANNING has functioned successfully in Springfield, Delaware County, Pennsylvania. Josephine B. Wolfe, supervisor

of elementary education in the Springfield township schools, tells of a workshop group made up of representatives of the parents, the teachers, the administration, and the Board of Education, who worked together in 1951-52 on the problem of developing adequate forms for reporting pupil progress. According to Miss Wolfe:

The group met systematically. This provided an opportunity for all to work together and share their experiences. After much study, consultants from local and national levels assisted in critically analyzing the results of the efforts of the group.

Besides the working group, additional study groups and conferences were held for parents and interested members of the community. These provided an excellent opportunity for interpreting the school program, as well as our method of reporting, to a large segment of the community.

The report forms that were evolved are worthy of commendation. There are two—one for Grade I and the other for Grades II-VI. Two areas are reported on in each: "Personal and Social Growth" and "Scholastic Growth." Enough detailed points are listed in each area to give an adequate picture, and yet not so many as to be confusing to the parent and exhausting to the teacher. With a single exception, the points are such that the teacher can find ample daily evidence to support his judgment for reporting that the child is making "satisfactory progress," "shows improvement," "needs improvement," or has made "outstanding achievement." The items considered in Grades II-VI are:

PERSONAL AND SOCIAL GROWTH

Social Habits

1. Respects the rights of others.
2. Practices self-control.
3. Plays well with children.
4. Shows kindness and consideration for others.
5. Encourages safety in and about the school.
6. Responds to suggestion and criticism.
7. Respects property rights.

Work Habits

1. Is attentive.
2. Follows directions.
3. Is prompt in all school activities.
4. Makes good use of time and follows through his plans on all activities.
5. Works well with others.
6. Works well independently.
7. Accepts and shares responsibility.
8. Is neat and orderly.

Health Habits

1. Is rested and alert.
2. Keeps neat and clean.
3. Has good posture habits.
4. Enjoys participating in health activities.

Dental Health Habits

1. Keeps teeth clean.
2. Keeps gums in good condition.
3. Needs attention.
4. Needs home supervision.

SCHOLASTIC GROWTH

LANGUAGE ARTS

Reading

1. Comprehends what he reads.
2. Reads well orally.
3. Is mastering all reading skills.
4. Makes use of library materials.

Language

1. *Creative Language*
Expresses ideas in all writing activities.
Expresses ideas in all speaking activities.
2. *Language Uses*
Uses language correctly in speaking.
Uses language correctly in writing.

Spelling

1. Is learning to spell the words he needs.
2. Is mastering the assigned list.

Handwriting

1. Writes legibly.
2. Writes neatly.

Arithmetic

1. Knows number facts and skills.
2. Can read and solve written problems.
3. Is accurate in his work.

Social Living (History, Geography, Science)

1. Shares interesting experiences.
2. Helps in planning activities.
3. Develops an understanding of people.
4. Is learning basic concepts and facts.
5. Participates in group activities.
6. Shows interest in current activities.
7. Uses maps, globes, and charts.
8. Uses reference materials.

CREATIVE ARTS

Music

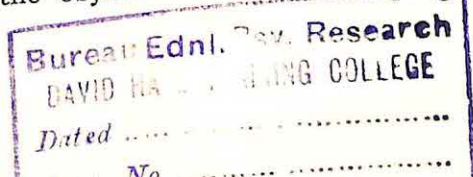
1. Enjoys and appreciates music.
2. Participates in music activities.
3. Shows originality in music activities.

Art

1. Enjoys and appreciates art.
2. Participates in art activities.
3. Shows originality in art activities.
4. Is learning basic art skills.

Reporting is done three times a year and is supplemented by conferences between parent and teacher twice a year. Miss Wolfe does not say when the *pupil* is told how well he is doing. It would also be interesting to know how the school program is arranged in order that the teacher may have time for conferences in the school day.

For each parent there is also a bulletin, *Reporting Pupil Progress*. This is a manual of instruction, and, while it is prepared to acquaint parents with the objectives of the pupil-progress



report "and thereby achieve a better understanding between home and the school," it may also serve to instruct new teachers in the system in reporting and in furthering wholesome home-school relations. Included in the manual are explanations and amplifications of topics on the report card, such as the meaning of the classifications, purposes of the parent-teacher conference, and conference hints for teachers and parents. The following are some of the hints on "What Parents May Expect To Learn from the Teacher":

1. What are the reasons [the child] is at his particular level?
2. What work do you expect my child to cover during the year?
3. Does my child arrive in the classroom on time, calm and ready for work?
4. Does my child attempt to seek more than his share of the teacher's and class attention?
5. Is he as emotionally mature as he should be for his age?
6. How can I help my child to further the desire for independent study (homework)?

Some of the suggestions of "What the Teacher May Expect To Learn from the Parent" are:

1. What does your child do with his leisure time? Does he have any hobbies?
2. Does he have respect for his own and other people's property?
3. Is he upset by disturbances, cry easily, or evidence temper?
4. Does he have any physical handicaps which would be helpful for me as his teacher to know about?
5. What is his attitude toward school? What can I do to appeal to his interests?
6. Do you feel that there is anything further

that I can do for the betterment of your child?

Miss Wolfe describes as follows the general results of this instance of co-operative planning:

Although frequent evaluation and further study continued from time to time during the first year, our new method of reporting was most successful. The report cards and manual of directions (as revised after the first year of use) are now an established part of our educational program. The understanding with which our differentiated program and our method of reporting pupil progress have been received is the result of the dual responsibility accepted by the school and the members of the community—that of preparing our children for their future livelihood.

Another helpful set of report cards has been brought to the attention of this editorial writer. They are used by the Community Unit School, District Number Two, Coles and Cumberland Counties, Mattoon, Illinois. One, the "Primary Progress Report," which is used in the elementary grades, shows an effort to meet almost every request a parent could possibly make.

There are eight sections to the report: "Work Habits"; "Social Development"; "Progress in Relation to Ability" (where check marks indicate the teacher's judgment about the pupil's progress in relation to his or her ability to achieve in school studies); "Achievement Test Record" (where the marks indicate how a child compares "with children in the same grade over the entire nation"); "Standing in Class" (with spaces for indicating whether the child is in the upper

fourth, the lower fourth, or the middle half of the class); "Height and Weight Record"; "Teacher's Comments"; and "Parent's Report to the School." At the top of each of the two last-named sections, in bold letters, there is this statement: "A conference with the teacher [or parent] would be the best method of making this report." Other than that, there is no indication of how the report is used.

H. W. Hightower, assistant superintendent, who sent samples of the cards to the editors, states that several years were spent in developing the forms; this can well be appreciated. Here, again, it would be interesting to know what arrangement is made in the school program to give teachers time for making reports. Any teacher who has had the experience of reporting the progress of thirty or more children, and has tried to make a carefully considered report that will be helpful to the child and instructive to the parent, knows how taxing in energy the task can be. A long, detailed report card that must be filled out after school hours can make reporting an exhausting ordeal to the conscientious teacher. There is little incentive to make reporting more effective. On the contrary, the incentive is likely to be to finish the task and meet the deadline before mental and physical weariness overwhelms him.

HUMAN VALUES AND HUMAN BEHAVIOR

PROBLEMS of human values and human behavior should concern

home, school, and the larger society. Schools, however, are being criticized by home and society for failure to teach children to be truthful, kindly, considerate, and responsible.

Recently, in a certain metropolitan area, the streetcar company was greatly exercised because of the destruction to streetcars by children on their way to and from school. Not only were acts of vandalism common, but children were contriving to ride without paying the fare. Replacement of destroyed property was costly, and the revenue to the company was cut by dishonesty. In an interview over the radio, a reporter asked a member of the streetcar company what could be done about the situation. "The schools should do something about it. The schools are to blame," was the reply. Whether all the fault lies with the schools is certainly questionable. But schools *can* do something about human values and human behavior—with the help of the home and the greater society outside.

Teachers and administrators are asking for help on where to begin, what to do, and how to proceed in order that teaching may actually function and practice be provided for. A publication, *Human Values in the Elementary School*, issued by the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association (Washington 6, D.C. \$1.00) contains directives, suggestions, and illustrative anecdotes that would be of great value to every elementary-school teacher. The Foreword states:

The original manuscript was prepared in a workshop sponsored by the Palmer Foundation at the University of Michigan in 1949-50, under the direction of Dr. William Clark Trow, professor of educational psychology, and Dr. Warren A. Ketcham, educational psychologist, School District of the City of Ferndale, Michigan, and lecturer in education, University of Michigan. The manuscript was revised and edited by Dorothy Neubauer of the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA.

A committee was appointed by the Department of Elementary School Principals to serve in an advisory capacity as the manuscript was edited and revised.

The pamphlet maintains that "there is a problem" and states:

Education has . . . the task of developing knowledge and skills, and it has also the task of developing other basic human values so that each may be balanced against the others in building a harmonious and well-adjusted personality. . . .

The term "human values" . . . is used to refer to values that are basic for living in a democratic society.

When we talk about "developing human values," we are not thinking of a glib speaking acquaintance with these values. We are thinking about *behavior*—the ways people act, the things they do that are in accord with human values. . . .

Back of such a school program [for developing human values] is this point of view about learning: *Children Learn by Experience*. To learn desired behavior they need to have practice in behaving appropriately—just as they need to have practice and experience if they are to learn to read, to sing, to play baseball, or to do anything else that requires knowledge and skill. . . .

Back of such a school program there must be something else, too. There must be planning, careful planning. The school cannot leave to chance the possibility that children will learn desirable behavior. Rather, it must

make a conscious effort to provide *opportunities* for learning through practice. And it must make a conscious effort to *guide* children in the use of those opportunities. . . .

Human Values in the Elementary School is designed to give practical help to teachers and other school personnel on this important part of the school program.

It starts with a study guide that the school staff may use as a basis for—

1. Planning effective group study meetings
2. Analyzing the problems in their own local situation
3. Identifying the parts of the school program that are particularly rich in opportunities for practicing behavior that is in accord with basic human values
4. Planning projects and activities to make the best use of these opportunities

It continues with a section that includes many specific illustrations of projects and activities that are being used effectively in a number of schools.

A carefully selected bibliography of related materials is included for further help.

Part 2 is planned for the use of study groups that might well include not only school personnel but parents and non-parents as well. Human values are listed, first, in terms of conditions to be avoided and, second, in terms of conditions to be sought. For example, under the heading "Intellectual Needs and Values" are the following:

Conditions to be avoided: *deficiency*—illiteracy, ignorance, gullibility, superstition, dishonesty (lying and cheating), lack of reading materials adapted to age and level of development; *excess*—pressure to learn to read, punitive atmosphere, worry about "failure," emphasis on marks, neglect of other values.

Conditions to be sought: adaptation of materials and demands to level of growth, choice of reading materials, experience with

things, permissive atmosphere, enjoyment in learning and in sharing knowledge, practice in identifying false claims, respect for facts, devotion to truth, love of learning.

Following the statement of values is a section on how human values look in action in a school situation—one a positive picture, and the other a negative one. Excellent questions are then suggested for discussion.

One point worthy of consideration by all adults is aptly stated in the following paragraph:

We cannot underestimate the influence of adult behavior. Consistency has strong teaching value, and our case is obviously strengthened when we support, by our own behavior, the values we seek to develop in young people. But we must recognize that the child will be exposed frequently to violations of those values among adults—adults whom he knows personally and adults about whom he hears or reads. Some of the violations will come from persons who talk loudly about the importance of the very values they repudiate in their own behavior. And some of the violations will come from people who hold positions of leadership in our communities. Sometimes such violations are publicized and criticized. Sometimes they are not publicized but are known by many and accepted by some as “all right, if you can get by with it.”

The third part of the brochure, “Human Values in a School Program,” lists thirteen suggested activities for the teacher. Illustrative of the type of activity are the following: “Planning the Week’s Program,” “Room Management,” “Trips and Excursions,” “The Play Period,” “A Hobby Club,” and “The Lunch Period.” Each discussion outlines the values to be gained, practiced, and

lived. From these the alert teacher may be helped to discover a wealth of opportunities for teaching human values.

This is a book with an excellent common-sense approach to a very vital problem facing not only the immediate school and community but all places where the worth of the individual is considered and democracy is practiced.

SCHOOL-PARENT RELATIONS

SHARP CRITICISMS of the schools have recently been made in many localities. Some of the criticism arises because the parents do not understand what the schools are attempting to do; some, because methods and means of teaching are changing and parents are suspicious of changes that they do not understand. Administrators are realizing that the parents want to know, and need to know, how their schools operate.

To provide some of this information, the Board of Education of the Tulsa public schools has issued a booklet entitled *Your Child and Your School: A Handbook for Parents of Children in the Elementary Schools*. Included is information on enrolment procedures, on tests given children, method of reporting pupil progress, cafeterias, time schedules, books and supplies, health services, provision for guidance, character-building organizations, and visiting school.

A few well-chosen points are made under each heading, and pen-and-ink sketches are used for illustration and

further emphasis. This is a handbook that is easily read and very informative. The illustrations are sometimes amusing and always pointed. The amount of information supplied in the brief statements is surprising. In the Foreword, Charles C. Mason, superintendent of schools, writes:

If there are further questions, parents should always feel free to ask teachers and principals for information.

Public school employees are constantly working to improve the quality of educational opportunities for the children of Tulsa. These employees, therefore, will welcome your questions, your suggestions, and your counsel.

Another handbook for acquainting parents with affairs of the school is entitled *Discipline in Our Schools*, a publication of the Philadelphia Suburban School Study Council, Group A. A committee of teachers from nine school districts, with the help of Helen Huus, of the University of Pennsylvania, as co-ordinator, prepared the brochure under the direction of the Educational Service Bureau, School of Education, University of Pennsylvania. The introduction to the book is addressed to "Dear Parents," and the body of the letter reads as follows:

Is there discipline in our schools today? Some who interpret discipline as the imposition of authority say *No*. Others who regard discipline as punishment for wrongdoing also say *No*. Those who believe that control of self can lead to socially acceptable behavior say *Yes*. This self-discipline is based on the belief that an individual learns self-control when he takes responsibility for his own behavior and thinks and plans for himself. It is this concept of discipline which our schools

are attempting to develop. At the same time, schools recognize there must be a judicious balance between imposition of authority on the one hand, and delegation of responsibility to the individual on the other.

On the following pages, good discipline is given further meaning in terms of "A Good Adjustment to School," "Developing Self-reliance," "Consideration for Others," "Boys and Girls Working Together," "Respect for Authority," and "Co-operation with the Community." Under each heading, a few good examples are given, stated in simple terms.

The amount to be read is short, and the statements are concise. The booklet is handsomely illustrated with photographs of children engaged in various activities. It is an excellent example of how school objectives may be interpreted to the parent in easily understood terms. It may be obtained for fifty cents a copy from the Educational Service Bureau, School of Education, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia 4, Pennsylvania.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO TEA

THE Department of Education of the University of Chicago invites friends and alumni of the University who will be at the meeting of the American Association of School Administrators in Atlantic City to attend a tea on February 17, 1953, from four to six o'clock in the afternoon. The tea will be given in the Ozone Room of the Hotel Dennis.

IDA B. DE PENCIER

WHO'S WHO FOR JANUARY

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by IDA B. DE PENCIER, teacher in the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago. GERTRUDE WHIPPLE, supervisor of reading in the Detroit public schools and associate professor of education at Wayne University, presents the results of a study designed to determine the kinds of illustrations that are most attractive to children themselves rather than to adults. BEATRICE FORD PARKER, first-grade teacher in the Del Monte Elementary School at Monterey, California, describes the purposes, goals, and ideal conditions of the parent-teacher conference from which the teacher, parent, and child may derive the maximum benefit. MARY C. SERRA, associate professor of education at Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois, reviews the literature on development of concepts, pointing out that in building a vocabulary, concepts are important in order to distinguish effective understanding from verbalism. WENDELL

B. ANDREWS, principal of the Lincoln School, Schenectady, New York, writes of his school's experience with an "unassigned" teacher, showing how the school, the principal, parents, and teachers profit when the program of one teacher is so arranged that he may accept a greater variety of assignments than those which can be filled by a regular classroom teacher. DAN H. COOPER, professor of educational administration at the State University of Iowa, presents a list of selected references on public school administration.

Reviewers of books PAUL R. PIERCE, assistant superintendent in charge of instruction and guidance of the Chicago public schools. JOHN WITHALL, associate professor of education, University of Delaware. AUGUSTA JAMESON, director of Associated Consultants in Education, Western Springs, Illinois. BURTON W. KREITLOW, associate professor of education and agricultural education at the University of Wisconsin.

APPRAISAL OF THE INTEREST APPEAL OF ILLUSTRATIONS

GERTRUDE WHIPPLE

Detroit Public Schools and Wayne University



ILLUSTRATIONS in the typical reading textbook cover a large proportion of the total space. The illustrations are elaborate and colorful, and they often entail considerable expense on the part of the publisher. From the general impression which they give it is easy to assume that the illustrations have educational value and that they require no special attention in textbook evaluation. This article reports an experiment which shows that, in spite of the favorable impressions such illustrations may make on adults, the illustrations differ widely in appeal to children.¹ The purpose of the experi-

ment was to derive valid standards which could be applied by teachers and school officials to appraise the interest appeal of illustrative material. In addition, through the experiment a method or technique was developed by means of which children's reactions can be secured and books can be graded objectively on the basis of the pictures they contain. Such a technique should be useful to the careful investigator, who often must spend considerable time and energy on an appraisal.

This article does not present a formula or any type of machine into which a book can be put and a report

¹ For a summary of earlier investigations in the same general area as this one, see Morton S. Malter, "Children's Preferences for Illustrative Materials," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLI (January, 1948), 378-85.

Several other reports also deserve consideration:

a) Irving R. Melbo and Ivan R. Waterman, "Pictures in Geography Textbooks," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (January, 1936), 362-76.

b) William A. Miller, "The Picture Choices of Primary-Grade Children," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVII (December, 1936), 273-82.

c) John G. Read, "Picture Indices for Basic Readers," *Elementary School Journal*, L (February, 1950), 339-40.

d) Alice Marietta Williams, *Children's Choices in Science Books*. Child Development Monographs, No. 27. New York: Bureau of Publica-

tions, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939.

e) Mabel Rudisill, "Children's Preferences for Color versus Other Qualities in Illustrations," *Elementary School Journal*, LII (April, 1952), 444-51.

f) John E. French, "Children's Preferences for Pictures of Varied Complexity of Pictorial Pattern," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (October, 1952), 90-95.

The earlier investigations justify the following conclusions concerning interest appeal of illustrations. (a) Illustrations account in part for the popularity of a book but may exert a negative as well as a positive appeal. (b) Size of the illustrations is an important factor in interest value. (c) Children prefer illustrations in color. (d) The subject matter of the picture has a marked effect upon its interest to the child; children are interested in a variety of subject matter.

come out indicating the book's rank in quality of pictorial material. Rather, the article is intended to give new insight concerning the kinds of illustrations that children like best and thus enable those who select books to increase the validity of their judgments. It deals only with one aspect of interest value—stimulation of interest in reading the accompanying selection.

MATERIAL AND PROCEDURE IN THE EXPERIMENT

As material for this study, the illustrations in six fourth-grade textbooks were used. The illustrations employed from one to four colors applied by the Ben Day method.² Of the total of 465 pictures tested, 49 were full-page illustrations. The average number of pictures to a selection varied in the six books from 1.2 to 2.2.

In order to eliminate all reading matter from the experiment, the illustrations were clipped out and mounted in booklets for the child's inspection, one booklet for each reader. The number of the page on which the first story began was typewritten at the top of the first left-hand page of the booklet. The first illustration in that story appeared below the page number. Other illustrations were entered in the order of their appearance in the story. The page number of the second story was entered on the next left-hand page, and the illustrations were entered as

has been described for the first story. This plan was followed until all the pictures had been entered in the booklet. For the investigator's use the booklets were lettered *A, B, C, D, E,* and *F* on the inside of the back cover. The covers were left blank so that all the booklets would look alike to the pupil.

Since this experiment was organized for the purpose of evaluating illustrations in fourth-grade textbooks, only pupils having fourth-grade reading ability according to the New Stanford Reading Test were included. Altogether, 150 pupils, representing six Detroit schools, were chosen. The sample was evenly divided between boys and girls. Approximately 5 per cent of the pupils were younger than nine years, 80 per cent ranged from nine to ten years, and 15 per cent were older than ten years. More than three-fourths of the pupils were average in intelligence according to the rating used in the Detroit schools, and the others were better than average. No pupil who had seen any of the textbooks used in the experiment was included.

Identical procedure was applied with all the books being tested. The same tester, the same pupils, and the same directions were used with every book. The order in which the six picture booklets were submitted to the pupils was carefully rotated.

The directions were aimed to stimulate the pupil to reveal his actual interest in each picture and to lead him to examine every picture submitted. He was asked to examine two of the

² For the benefit of the reader who is not technically informed, a description of methods of color application may be found in William H. Johnson and Louis V. Newkirk, *The Graphic Arts*, pp. 47-75. New York: Macmillan Co., 1942.

six booklets at a time, and he was tested three times. The pupil was provided with plenty of bookmarks. He was told to look at every picture in the booklets and insert a bookmark wherever the pictures indicated an interesting story; then to re-examine all the pictures he had marked and to make three choices of stories to read. In order to encourage the pupil to choose the pictures which suggested that the story accompanying them would be most interesting to read, the point was stressed that he would be given the opportunity to read only the three stories that he chose. Thus the experiment was designed to measure potential interest in the accompanying text as opposed to interest in the picture as such or in some characteristic of the picture. For convenience the type of interest value studied will be referred to as "narrative interest value."

After the pupil had made his three choices of stories, a record was made of the identifying letter on the booklet and the page number of each selection chosen. In order that all the readers might be submitted to exactly the same procedure, three pupils were tested at a time, each pupil being given a different pair of the booklets. After the completion of the child's record, time was given him to read the stories in the order chosen. The books were so arranged that he could see only the story he had chosen. The children compared the pictures with care and made a real effort to select the most interesting stories.

COMPARISON OF THE TEXTBOOKS

Only the outstanding data secured in this study will be presented here. The total number of choices accorded a textbook in reading ranged from 341 to 149 (out of a grand total of 1,350 choices). This range shows clearly that the textbook which ranked first was far superior to the book which ranked sixth in narrative interest appeal of illustrations. Moreover, the textbook ranking first was superior to every reader with which it was paired, and the textbook ranking sixth did not rank first in any of the pairings.

The per cent of selections which were not chosen at all ranged from 3.9 in one book to 39.1 in another. In one book the number of choices for the stories varied from zero to nineteen, while in another book it varied from zero to forty-seven. In one book fifteen selections were chosen by more boys than girls, and five selections received more choices by girls. In another book, however, seventeen selections were chosen more often by girls, and six selections were more popular with boys.

It is evident that the narrative interest value of illustrations requires evaluation if a wise selection of books is to be made.

SIGNIFICANT CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PICTURES

Analysis of the characteristics of the selections frequently chosen and of those chosen rarely or not at all indicated the importance of six items in determining narrative interest value.

These items are (1) the number of illustrations in a selection, (2) the size of picture, (3) the number of colors used in the picture, (4) the presence or absence of a center of interest, (5) the type of action depicted, and (6) the theme or subject matter of the illustration. An analysis of the illustrations in the 292 selections included in the experiment was then made for each of these items.

Effect of number of illustrations.—

Table 1 presents data concerning the number of choices received by selections having a stated number of pictures. The averages given in the table are very consistent, a fact which indicates the reliability of the data.³ The last row of figures indicates that the 179 selections including a single picture averaged 3.0 choices. As the number of pictures in a selection increased up to four, there was a marked increase in the number of times the selections were chosen. In selections having more than four pictures, there was a decrease in the number of times the selections were chosen. However, there were only four selections which had five pictures each, and one selection which had ten pictures. The data in Table 1 indicate unquestionably

that the presence of several pictures in a selection assists in attracting a child's interest. The illustrations in most of the highest-ranking selections presented a series of related episodes. In view of these two findings, it seems evident that the use of several pictures enables an artist to show a sequence of action.

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF TIMES SELECTIONS HAVING
VARIOUS NUMBERS OF PICTURES
WERE CHOSEN

NUMBER OF PICTURES	NUMBER OF SELEC- TIONS	NUMBER OF CHOICES GIVEN SINGLE SELECTIONS		
		Smallest	Largest	Average
10.	1	2.0
5.	4	0	14	7.8
4.	8	11	43	20.5
3.	24	0	47	9.4
2.	76	0	28	5.2
1.	179	0	22	3.0

As shown in the third column of Table 1, certain selections in each of the groups received a relatively large number of choices. For example, one of the selections having only a single picture received twenty-two choices. In view of the conspicuously large number of choices accorded certain selections which had few pictures, it would seem that, in the case of some selections, one or two illustrations may be sufficiently alluring to attract the child's interest to the accompanying text. Further analysis showed that the use of many illustrations in a selection affects the choices of boys and girls alike.

³ As a further test of the reliability of the data, Pearson's chi-square test was applied to the averages. Chi square for the averages in Table 1 equals 677.30, a number so large that it exceeds the values of chi square given in Pearson's tables. Thus the probability that the differences in these averages happened by chance is infinitesimal. Values of chi square calculated for certain of the data presented later were all found to be so large as practically to preclude the probability that the averages happened by chance.

Effect of size of picture.—Table 2 presents the lowest, the highest, and the average number of choices received by selections having illustrations differing in average size. The first column of figures gives the num-

TABLE 2

NUMBER OF TIMES SELECTIONS HAVING
ILLUSTRATIONS OF VARIOUS SIZES
WERE CHOSEN

AVERAGE AREA OF ILLUSTRATIONS IN SQUARE INCHES	NUM- BER OF SELEC- TIONS	NUMBER OF CHOICES GIVEN SINGLE SELECTIONS		
		Smallest	Largest	Average
21-25.....	13	0	22	6.9
16-20.....	23	0	19	5.8
11-15.....	82	0	37	5.7
6-10.....	136	0	47	4.3
1- 5.....	38	0	17	1.8

TABLE 3

NUMBER OF TIMES SELECTIONS HAVING
ILLUSTRATIONS IN ONE TO FOUR COLORS
WERE CHOSEN

NUMBER OF COLORS	NUM- BER OF SELEC- TIONS	NUMBER OF CHOICES GIVEN SINGLE SELECTIONS		
		Small- est	Larg- est	Aver- age
4 (Black, yellow, red, blue).....	50	0	43	7.8
3 (Black, yellow, red).....	26	0	20	6.7
2 (Black, with tones of orange or brown).....	121	0	47	4.3
1 (Black and white).....	95	0	23	2.8

ber of selections falling into each group. The data presented in Table 2 justify the conclusion that large pictures are, in general, more attractive to fourth-grade children than are small pictures. However, data in the second and third columns of figures

show striking exceptions to this general rule. Here again no marked differences were discovered in the findings for boys and girls.

Effect of color.—Table 3 presents the average number of choices received by selections which had pictures using one, two, three, or four colors. The data in the last column of this table show that the most popular pictures for the type of pupils who participated in this study are those produced in four colors. The data also show that even a slight use of color in an illustration attracts children's attention to a selection more than does use of only black and white. However, as is shown by the ranges given in the table, certain black-and-white pictures had greater narrative interest appeal than certain pictures in three or four colors. The data also showed that color appeal holds true equally for boys and girls.

Effect of a center of interest.—The average number of choices for the 227 selections which presented a center of interest in the illustrations was 5.6. For the 65 selections which were deficient in this respect, the average number of choices was 1.1. These data show that selections with a recognizable center of interest in the pictures offer greater appeal to children than do those which are lacking in this respect. Further analysis of the data indicated that a center of interest increases the narrative interest appeal of illustrations for both boys and girls.

Effect of type of action.—Data in Table 4 show that illustrations pre-

senting story-telling action are effective in stimulating interest in reading matter. These data show further that pointless action (action the purpose of which was not evident in the picture) and lack of action are equally ineffective. However, as indicated in the second and third columns, pictures in all three categories sometimes were not chosen at all and sometimes were chosen frequently. Therefore, it must be concluded that the nature of the action is not the only factor which determines narrative interest appeal. Further classification of the data indicated that story-telling action makes a similar appeal to boys and girls.

Effect of theme.—An analysis was made of the pictures according to what they promised from the standpoint of the child. In order to eliminate other factors from the investigator's consideration, the content of each picture was described in writing. The description was then studied and the picture classified, with attention also to children's comments obtained in the experiment. Many of the topics were represented by only a few selections. Therefore, final conclusions ought not to be drawn with regard to the comparative popularity of these topics.

Table 5 shows that the theme of the illustration is of great significance in attracting children's attention to a selection. This is indicated by the fact that the average number of choices for a topic ranges from 0 to 16.8. Themes ranking high in the table include "Fire" (16.8), "Holidays" (12.6),

"War and fighting" (11.6), "Fanciful characters" (9.2), "Sea and ships" (8.7), "Indians" (7.5), "Marionettes" (7.0), and "Means of travel" (6.4). These themes undoubtedly permit an artist to portray action in a sequence of interesting episodes. Among the

TABLE 4
NUMBER OF TIMES SELECTIONS HAVING ILLUSTRATIONS DEPICTING VARIOUS TYPES OF ACTION WERE CHOSEN

TYPE OF ACTION	NUMBER OF SELECTIONS	NUMBER OF CHOICES GIVEN SINGLE SELECTIONS		
		Small-est	Larg-est	Average
Story-telling action.	123	0	47	9.0
Pointless action. . . .	119	0	13	1.4
Lack of action.	50	0	15	1.4

topics which received relatively few or no choices are "Vocational activities" (0.9), "Homes and buildings" (0.4), "Toilet articles" (0.0), "Hand- and foot-prints" (0.0), and a "Dam" (0.0). With the exception of vocational activities, the latter themes do not involve action. It appears that themes which involve action are uniformly preferred.

Analysis of the data for the boys and girls showed that they agree on certain of their likes and dislikes in illustrations. Both like pictures of fire (boys, 7.8; girls, 9.0) and fanciful characters (boys, 4.1; girls, 5.2). Both failed to choose pictures of toilet articles, hand- and foot-prints, and a dam.

Themes which were ranked high by

the boys and low by the girls were "War and fighting" (boys, 10.2; girls, 1.4), "Sea and ships" (boys, 7.0; girls, 1.7), and "Means of travel" (boys, 4.8; girls, 1.6). The boys also chose pictures of Indians somewhat more often than did the girls (boys, 5.1; girls, 2.4). The girls, on the other hand, showed a greater preference than the boys did for the pictures indi-

cating holiday stories (boys, 1.0; girls, 11.6) and pictures of marionettes (boys, 1.5; girls, 5.5).

CHIEF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Most school officials will agree that superior books enrich the content of instruction and simplify the teacher's problems in developing reading ability. Specifically, illustrations in readers

TABLE 5
AVERAGE NUMBER OF TIMES A SELECTION FALLING INTO EACH CLASSIFICATION WITH RESPECT TO SUBJECT MATTER OF ILLUSTRATIONS WAS CHOSEN

Subject Matter	Number of Selections	Average Number of Choices
Fire (pictures showing activities associated with fire-fighting).	4	16.8
Holidays (pictures showing a holiday season).	5	12.6
War and fighting (pictures showing combat in different periods of history).	5	11.6
Fanciful characters (pictures showing an element of fancy or the supernatural).	25	9.2
Sea and ships (activities on boats or in the water).	6	8.7
Indians (pictures showing Indian life).	10	7.5
Marionettes (pictures showing marionettes in action).	2	7.0
Means of travel (pictures showing a type of transportation).	14	6.4
Safety and first aid (pictures emphasizing the prevention of accidents).	4	3.8
Primitive people (pictures showing prehistoric or modern people living under primitive conditions).	4	3.3
Stars (pictures showing a constellation).	1	3.0
People of modern times (pictures showing people of our country in modern dress).	53	2.9
People of other lands (pictures showing people in foreign dress or setting).	22	2.9
Animals (pictures showing different forms of animal life, ranging from insects to large animals).	65	2.8
People of early times (pictures showing people of medieval, Colonial, or other early times).	27	2.6
Flags (pictures showing American flags of early times or today).	5	2.4
Scenes in a city (pictures showing views within a foreign city).	1	2.0
Trees and gardens (pictures showing fruit or shade trees or flowers in bloom).	4	1.5
Vocational activities (pictures showing a particular kind of work).	7	.9
Homes and buildings (pictures showing city buildings or homes in various times and places).	5	.4
Toilet articles (picture showing a collection of toilet articles).	1	.0
Hand- and foot-prints (picture showing the print of a hand and of feet).	1	.0
Dam (picture showing a wall damming up a river).	1	.0
Unclassified.	20	8.4

aid the teacher in building the child's motives for reading. This study has demonstrated exceptionally wide variations among six reading textbooks in respect to the narrative interest value of their illustrations. The data show that it is entirely erroneous to assume that the illustrations in textbooks on the market are certain to make a lively appeal to children. Therefore, without some definite evaluation of the illustrations, the purchasers of books may unwittingly select a book which handicaps even the best teachers in their efforts to develop interest in the reading matter by visual means.

For purposes of appraisal, valid standards are required. In the application of the standards listed below, it should be recalled that this study deals solely with the item "interest value." It does not consider the aesthetic value of pictures in cultivating the child's taste, the informative value of pictures in clarifying his ideas, or the various other educational values of pictures that could be analyzed. Furthermore, only one aspect of interest appeal is studied, namely, the stimulation of interest in reading the accompanying selection. The criterion of narrative interest value should be given its fair weight but not be regarded as the sole criterion in appraising illustrative material.

This study indicates that narrative interest value may be estimated by ranking books, using all or a sampling of the illustrations, with respect to the following specific standards:

1. The proportion of the illustrations that have a definite center of interest which draws the eye to a particular point. Such a center is usually large and impressive, easy to interpret, and not subordinated by too many details.
2. The proportion of the illustrations that depict action. The more interesting the moment of action, the more appealing the illustration. The action ranks high if it tells a story in a sequence of pictures.
3. The extent to which color is used in the illustrations. An illustration in several colors has greater merit than a black-and-white picture. The artificial use of a single color other than black is less appealing to children than the realistic use of three or four colors.
4. The average size of the illustrations. The larger the area devoted to the illustration, the higher the interest value, other characteristics being equal.
5. The number of illustrations included in the book. The larger the total number of illustrations in the book, the higher the interest value. This statement holds up to an undefined point of saturation. Too many illustrations would reduce the amount of reading matter and make the textbook a mere picture-book.
6. The extent to which the illustrations deal with eventful topics as opposed to still-life topics. An illustration which presents a theme having marked human interest, displaying the supernatural, or relating to exciting adventures has greater merit than an illustration on an uneventful topic.



THE PARENT-TEACHER CONFERENCE

BEATRICE FORD PARKER

Del Monte Elementary School, Monterey, California



RECOGNITION of the need for parents and teachers to meet in order to think and work together is no new thing. The unquestioned value of co-operation and understanding between the home and the school in terms of the resultant benefit to the child has long been recognized. This fact is witnessed by the time and energy given by both parents and educators to organizations such as the parent-teachers' association and to other school-community functions. Every teacher recognizes the superiority of the personal contact, however brief and informal, over the more static written report. A five-minute chat of the most casual sort, where questions may be brought up and answered on the spot and ideas and opinions are exchanged, has brought many a teacher and parent closer together in their aims and given to each a new understanding of the child whose interests they both share and wish to promote.

Many school systems, realizing this, have set aside regularly scheduled time for the parent-teacher conference. Some use it as a replacement for, or a supplement to, the written report. Whether or not this is the case in his

particular school, every teacher may well wish to review the more desirable standards of such a conference, knowing that the same principles which have met with success in the planned meeting may be applied to advantage in even the most casual encounters; may serve to dictate the effective approach or "slant" to be adopted for notes and messages sent into the home; and may, in fact, be carried over to act as a guide in all public relations.

IDEAL CONDITIONS

In the case of the regularly scheduled conference, it is the teacher's responsibility to secure ample time so that a thorough discussion may be completed without hurry and to insure as much privacy and freedom from interruption as is possible. Under no conditions should children or other parents be waiting in the room. The teacher will have consulted beforehand the pupil's records, health cards, and other data and will have on hand a sample of his work in the various subjects to provide a springboard for the discussion.

The teacher will use an approachable manner and will give a friendly

and unhurried greeting, thus setting the tone for the conference. Whether he is meeting the parent for the first time or knows him well, the teacher realizes that his is the responsibility for establishing the businesslike but easy rapport necessary to a working relationship. This is to be a joint undertaking, with the parent and teacher working together in their planning for the child. Suggestions and ideas should come from shared thinking, rather than be handed down or imposed, as though from above, from one to the other of the participants. The teacher will refrain, then, from sitting behind the desk, which, when placed between parent and teacher, might act as a sort of barrier of authority.

The instructor will remember always that the parent, since he brings another slant or viewpoint, may have as much to give the teacher, as much to teach and suggest, as the latter himself may have. The teacher, too, may have an entirely different view of the child from that held by the parent. The teacher sees the pupil, perhaps more objectively, but certainly in a situation which is more formal, as he lives and works with others in a social group. The instructor is concerned with the pupil's acceptance of, and adjustment to, that group, while the parent may be worried or pleased on quite another count. Both these sides of the child's nature must be recognized and shared if the picture is to be whole and if the partnership is to be such that both parent and teacher

may speak freely as they consult and plan together for the child's growth.

ESTABLISHING UNITY OF PURPOSE

The teacher's aim is to direct the parent to discover his child's needs and to think along lines which will result in a plan of action fitted to meet those needs. Every child has some need, perhaps not for remedial attention but only for further growth. Then it is desirable to help the parent discover a worth-while channel or avenue for that growth. In any case, the teacher wants to set up a situation where he and the parent can, as a team, further the development of the child in question.

How, then, are this mutual respect and unity of purpose to be established? The teacher will do well at all times to avoid "telling the parent" or employing any form of advice or criticism which might incur the parent's displeasure and consequent resistance. In due time, the teacher may give much help, even advice, in the form of suggestions offered as possibilities to be considered in their mutual thinking.

A good beginning is to let the parent speak first if he is so inclined. If not, perhaps a question or a showing of the child's work or a sincere compliment on some phase of his nature or activity may serve to get the parent started. Once the parent is speaking, the teacher will want to *listen*, not just wait to break in and force upon the other his own preconceived ideas. While the teacher listens, he will

learn, and he may find himself qualifying some formerly held opinions. Later, in this or in succeeding conferences, the teacher will find a way to work in some constructive suggestions for moving ahead, as the aim of the conference is not just to afford the parent the temporary relief of "talking out" his troubles or satisfactions but rather to assist that parent in gaining the insight necessary to an understanding of his child and his own place in his child's development.

DISCOVERING THE PARENT'S ATTITUDES AND FEELINGS

Before the teacher can hope to offer any concrete suggestions concerning a child's behavior or achievement, and before he can very well ask for the parent's suggestions, he will want to manage these first moments so as to form in his own mind a picture of the parent and the parental attitude and to catch a glimpse of the family home life and relationships. He can best gain these ends by attempting to think along with the parent, getting the picture of the child which is held in the parent's mind. The teacher will note, but not overweigh, the little things a parent says that may hint at attitudes and feelings.

At no time will the teacher assume that he and the parent are sharing exact thinking when a general or ambiguous statement is made, since, in fact, their views may be widely divergent. It might be well to encourage the parent to enlarge upon such statements. For instance, should he refer to

"Jimmy's temper," whether or not the teacher feels that such a quality is numbered among Jimmy's characteristics, he will not assume that he and the parent hold the same view of "temper." The teacher may ask, "In what way does Jimmy show it at home?" or some similar question which will cause the parent to discuss the matter further but which does not commit the teacher. Then, when the quality is further defined, should he disagree with the parent's view, he will avoid expressing or even implying disagreement. In asking the parent what he feels might be some possible *causes* of this behavior, the teacher is definitely moving the discussion forward, since he has not only indicated that behavior is "caused"—and by more than one factor—but has also encouraged the parent to continue his discussion. The teacher then is able to bring in suggestions quite naturally as he asks, "Do you think that such-and-such a plan might possibly be good?" Here the teacher is setting up a working, co-operative relationship, from which basis he, as well as the parent, may offer direct suggestions for mutual discussion and resolution.

DEVELOPING THE PARENT'S INSIGHT

Should the parent have no questions or suggestions, the teacher who asks for an opinion on a projected possibility is advancing the conference by helping the parent to see, perhaps for the first time, the possibility of *action* toward growth and the desirability of planning that action. At the very

least, he is drawing the parent into the discussion and, by doing so, making the latter feel himself a participant in the final decision.

In the event that the parent feels that he has a problem or is otherwise already aware of the need for action, he must, in explaining it to another, crystallize his own thinking in the matter in order to express himself. If encouraged by a question or a nod, and *if allowed to finish*, many times he will resolve his own difficulties just through the telling of them. As he talks, he may realize an inconsistency or see where he erred or might at least have acted differently in his handling of the matter. Sometimes he will come by himself to a wise decision regarding further steps to be taken. In this happy event, it remains with the teacher only to smile and concur while the parent goes away convinced that he has met with a most understanding and enlightened instructor!

It is wise to accept the parent's idea whenever it is at all practicable, for he will enter into it with more heart than he will give to a plan imposed by another. Then, should his own plan fail to achieve the end desired, he will be all the more receptive to the teacher's suggestions.

PROBLEMS OCCASIONALLY MET IN CONFERENCES

If the parent should voice criticism of the school or school policies, it seems best to let him talk it out. When he experiences the satisfaction of having been heard, he will reciprocate

by hearing out the teacher's attempts to clear up misconceptions by explaining further the practice or process in question. Usually these things are a matter of misunderstanding only. The parent who has been helped to see the multiple aims behind even the most seemingly informal activities in a schoolroom is seldom to be heard voicing an objection. To argue or contradict is merely to arouse resentment. The teacher will, rather, want to keep the discussion in a positive vein as he attempts to point out the reasons behind the act in question. If the policy is one that he does not feel able to explain or justify, he should not hesitate to refer the parent to the person or persons in a position to know and thus better able to answer questions.

In some rare instances a parent will be extremely disturbed or upset. The teacher must learn to recognize the cases with which he should not deal, where he may, in fact, do more harm than good. In such a case the teacher should not hesitate to recommend or call in school specialists who are better equipped than he to handle it, just as he would refer a severe emotional or behavior case among the pupils to the school psychologist or to other qualified authorities. He will realize that no thinking administrator expects a teacher to be able to cope with everything, and he should feel free to employ the services of persons who are there for the primary purpose of helping teachers.

Many of these distressing inter-

views will be avoided if conferences and letters sent home are not restricted to cases which are troublesome or require remedial treatment. Much is to be gained from a contact which is made merely through the wish to get acquainted or to inform the parent that his child is doing well or improving. If parents are called in only in times of trouble, they are likely to develop a defensive resistance toward the school and a negative attitude toward what it is trying to do. By the same token, the teacher should try to end the conference on a constructive note, with an honest compliment on the parent's interest or on some phase of the child's work and, perhaps, with a mention of a point to be discussed at another time—carrying the thinking into the next meeting and thus pointing up its desirability.

CONCLUSION

In the briefest of meetings or discussions with a parent, the teacher who can attempt, on however small a scale, to achieve some of the ends mentioned above is doing the school

and the public a real service. Just as in the schoolroom the most important element is the intangible one of teacher-pupil relations, so the success of "parent guidance" depends largely upon the attitude of confidence and respect and the atmosphere of friendly exchange which can be established between the parent and the teacher.

When a parent expresses himself freely before his child's teacher, knowing he will be heard with sympathy and in confidence, then that teacher can get a picture of the parent, the child, and the home that will enable him to help the parent toward an acceptance and understanding of his child and his own position in relation to that child. Parent-teacher planning which is based on such a sound mutual respect cannot fail to bring an immeasurable value to the child in terms of the parent's and the teacher's increased insight into his personality and needs, as well as the child's own grateful recognition of the happy consistency of purpose which results when home and school are working together—for him!

HOW TO DEVELOP CONCEPTS AND THEIR VERBAL REPRESENTATIONS

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THE ATTEMPTS to define the word "concept" have been many, but as yet there has been little agreement on an adequate definition. For empirical purposes, however, Dewey's definition is commonly accepted: "Concept" is defined as a "meaning sufficiently individualized to be directly grasped and readily used, and thus fixed by a word" (7: 60).

Concepts exist at all levels of complexity. A concept can be based on one experience with an object or upon a multitude of experiences, and it will increase in complexity with the amount of experience. It can be based on varying degrees of relationships among objects. Concepts of increasing levels of complexity are based on a hierarchy of concepts dealing with objects and their relationships. Concepts are also symbolized and verbalized by the individual, and the symbols or words in themselves become new concepts with a new hierarchy.

Verbalization, however, is not essential to indicate the existence of a concept. Behavior may demonstrate the acquisition of a concept. It is obvious that the fourteen-month-old toddler who, having once touched a hot stove, thereafter avoids all stoves

has a well-established concept of a hot stove. He has in no way, however, the ability to verbalize his experience with a stove.

READING CONCERNED WITH VERBALIZED CONCEPTS

Research that attempts to deal with concepts as related to the reading process is concerned with verbalized concepts. The investigator must realize that any printed statement of a concept is only one expression out of an almost unlimited number that the author might have used. Hence, failure of a child to acquire the concept through reading may arise from poor choice of expression by the author rather than from weakness in the child.

The approach beginning with printed material becomes involved in word meaning. Through general agreement, certain sounds, symbolized in writing by certain combinations of letters, are called "words," and certain meanings are attached to certain words. The question is simply whether a child is aware of, and in accord with, the common agreement concerning each word. But most words have multiple meanings; that is, they symbolize

different concepts. All concepts that have been verbalized can be expressed in many ways, through the use of different words and of different syntactical devices. There is a distinct tendency for research dealing with concepts to bog down into investigations of word meanings.

Numerous experimenters investigating the area of concepts have been interested in determining best teaching procedures rather than in establishing principles of how to develop concepts. Inferences drawn from research into the way concepts develop and from the factors that influence their development provide the needed principles.

DIRECT EXPERIENCE

Findings from a review of research on factors influencing concept development indicate that the more direct the experience on which the concept is built, the greater will be the individual's knowledge and understanding of that concept.

Experience is necessary in order to build concepts. It is impossible, however, for any person to develop all the concepts needed in modern life on the basis of direct experience alone. Vicarious experience must be utilized, much of which will be received through the medium of language. When verbal symbols are added to the stock of established concepts, it is essential that these initial concepts be formed on the basis of direct experience. In order to build concepts, then, it is necessary to provide experience in order to establish the simple concepts that will be

subsequently combined and manipulated to form the more complex concepts. Concepts that can be traced back only to verbal language or to symbols acquired through language result in mere verbalism.

Margaret Bedwell's investigation (2) established the fact that it is possible to have verbal or factual knowledge without having a functional concept. Using twenty-one third-grade children, she determined their comprehension of the number of concepts they read in their geography and history books. Actual experience, as she pointed out, is the most important factor in concept development.

Sister M. B. Herbers (13) investigated the comprehension difficulties of thirty third-grade pupils as they used third-grade readers. This study indicated that concrete materials and personal experiences are necessary to overcome verbalism. Herbers' findings were substantially as follows:

1. Pupils revealed inadequate and incorrect concepts of words, phrases, and sentences.
2. Materials which were used by the pupils with facility showed hazy and erroneous concepts.
3. There was a lack of understanding of all items to which there were correct responses in the yes-no or multiple-choice test.

Osburn, Huntington, and Meeks (22) experimented with vicarious experience between the levels of direct experience and of verbalization. The population for this study included sixty-seven kindergarten children. A series of exercises composed entirely of pictures, illustrating various relation-

ships between the pictures, was used. The findings were that experiences with pictures, illustrations, models, and the like should be used to make concrete the relationships implied in language.

Phipps (23), too, pointed out that concrete experience is important in the development of concepts. His subjects were in five sixth-grade classes. An experimental group was given an overview of the material presented orally by the teacher; visual aids were used; and important words were posted and used in drill. The control group was not drilled on vocabulary. No check was made to find whether the children actually understood the concepts that they used in their history readings. This was a study to determine whether history-reading ability was improved through special attention to development of readiness for vocabulary and aid in use of vocabulary. Phipps concluded that adequate preparation through concrete experience is a necessary component for units of classwork.

Sachs (25) made the point that children do not acquire concepts by merely meeting words in context. He worked with 416 Freshmen in college to determine the extent of their meaning vocabulary. His study shows the limitations of the reading method of improving vocabulary. The work of Sims (28) emphasizes that the role of experience is of utmost importance in the development of concepts, and Stolte (29), working with geographical concepts, drew the same conclusions. Wiedefeld (34), in the field of history,

concluded that building concepts necessitates the providing of experiences.

VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

Much of the research devoted to determining the most effective means of increasing vocabulary assumes that enlargement of vocabulary is in itself a virtue, without questioning the dimensions of the concepts with which words are associated. In that direction lies verbalism. In the mass, however, this research demonstrates that vocabulary is increased by experiences of two kinds: (1) experience with the raw materials of the concepts for which given words are symbols, that is, experience with objects and processes and with lower-level concepts on which the required concepts are built; and (2) experience with the given word itself, that is, hearing the word, speaking the word, and reading and writing it. Experience with the raw materials of concepts develops the concept; experience with the word associates word and concept.

Dunkel's conclusion (8) that the ability to determine the precise meaning of a word is related to the ability to read with comprehension gives the clue to the reason for the great number of investigations of word meaning and vocabulary development. He constructed a new type of vocabulary test because he was dissatisfied with the conventional test which assumes a "core meaning" or "sphere of meaning" for each word. These tests, he felt, did nothing to test the student's interpretation of the precise meaning taken on by a word used in a particu-

lar situation. In Dunkel's test, each word tested was used in a paragraph and then in five sentences. Subjects were to mark the item which had the same meaning as the word in the paragraph. This test was administered to subjects in Grades X, XII, and XIV. Dunkel concluded, in effect:

1. The ability to determine the precise meaning of a word is related to the ability to read with comprehension.

2. Education and maturity lead to development of the ability to determine the precise meaning of a word.

The studies cited below (in chronological order of publication) are among the more conspicuous of those dealing with vocabulary building.

Haefner (12) found that it seemed possible to improve the vocabulary of a group of adults by merely exposing them for a few minutes each day to a new word. Vocabulary is acquired, in part, by casual learning. Vocabulary can also be acquired by formal drill. Newburn's study (21) of the relative effect exerted by two methods of vocabulary drill on achievement in history gave evidence to this effect. Liddell (15) confirmed Newburn's findings. She also found that, as children encounter unknown words in their reading, different methods of word drill vary in effectiveness. She investigated the relative effectiveness of four methods of teaching word meanings to 236 pupils in Grades IV and V:

1. The "telling" method was most effective. In it, the teacher and the children discussed the "unknown" words, gave definitions, illustrative sentences, and synonyms.

2. The "context" method, in which the

children figured out meanings from context and the teacher checked the results following class discussion, was second in the order of effectiveness.

3. The "picture" method, in which children attempted to determine meanings of words from appropriate illustrations, was third in order of effectiveness.

4. The "dictionary" method, in which the children attempted to determine meanings from dictionaries, was the least effective of the four methods.

Liddell's study indicates that class discussion under teacher direction is the most effective method of vocabulary drill. In this investigation, however, the children were not necessarily acquiring new concepts but were, in most instances, merely associating words and concepts.

Gray and Holmes (11) studied exhaustively the development of meaning vocabulary. In a series of studies involving subjects in Grade IV, they investigated methods of developing meaning vocabularies in reading. The experimental groups were offered specific vocabulary help to form clear, vivid associations between word meanings and the written symbols. In the control group no guidance was given except as the children asked individually for help. The conclusions were:

1. a) Specific, direct help in developing meaning brings greater vocabulary growth than incidental learning of meaning.
- b) Stock of "sight" words may be greatly expanded by encountering new words in material read.
- c) Growth is stimulated if the author makes frequent use of definitions, illustrations, etc., in explaining meanings.

- d) Discussions attendant on a unit tend to expand and enrich meaning associations with words.
 - e) Pupils with limited vocabularies are not able to grasp meanings of new words readily without specific help.
 - f) Specific guidance in vocabulary development is of particular value with pupils of limited initial achievement and limited mental ability.
 - g) Context is the chief aid to development of meaning when specific guidance is not given.
 - h) When direct guidance is given in learning meanings, gains are uniform for verbs, nouns, and adjectives.
 - i) When children are not taught word meanings, verbs are learned most readily, nouns next, and adjectives least readily.
2. a) Direct methods of vocabulary development are helpful in improving students' use of new words in written composition.
 - b) Direct methods of vocabulary development result in greater fluency in oral discussion than does the incidental method.
3. Direct methods of vocabulary development bring greater improvement:
 - a) in accuracy of word recognition than does the incidental method.
 - b) in fluency in silent reading (fewer fixations, shorter fixations, etc.).
 - c) in detail and accuracy of comprehension, grasp of relationships, and organization of ideas obtained from reading material.

Using a population of sixty-eight sub-Freshmen of a junior high school, Traxler (30) concluded that reasonably permanent gains in vocabulary can be made through drill. He found that word meaning is learned by studying the definitions, by reading, and by making sentences using the

word. Mere reading of a word was not particularly effective.

Waring (32) investigated the relative values of the intensive and the incidental methods of teaching vocabulary to thirty-four high-school students. Her research produced some pertinent findings: (1) Intensive training in vocabulary using specific words leads to greater gains in general vocabulary than does the incidental method of word study. (2) Intensive training in vocabulary leads to greater gains in knowledge of specific words than does the incidental method. The findings of Waring's study imply:

1. Intensive training makes pupils "word-conscious" and leads to gains in general vocabulary.
2. Specific training in prefixes, suffixes, and roots adds definitely to general vocabulary gains.
3. Studying a word in context and building as many settings for it as possible help to fix the word in mind, give the symbol a frame of reference, and sharpen its meaning.
4. It would appear that pupils in the first quarter gain the most from intensive vocabulary study.

For one hundred junior high school pupils, Waters (33) found that thorough study of meanings and uses of specific words improves comprehension of the words studied. Her experimental group was given instruction requiring the use of the dictionary; engaged in class discussion of "new" words; used exercises in selecting most accurate, vivid, and colorful words, and the most specific words; and kept vocabulary notebooks. The control group received no special training in vocabulary. Waters concluded:

1. Pupils did not accept the responsibility of becoming acquainted with words they did not know.

2. Pupils did improve slightly in word knowledge as a result of their everyday contacts, even though they received no special training on the words.

3. Systematic "drill" evidenced greater effectiveness than mere incidental treatment of vocabulary.

At the sixth-grade level, Phipps (23) concluded that wide experience with words and with the concepts they symbolize is essential to the improvement of the reading of history materials. Readiness for reading history materials is achieved by building concepts and making vocabulary meaningful.

Curoe and Wixted (5, 6) found that a short period of direct instruction in word study will result in enriching the vocabulary of college Seniors. Blair (3) drew similar conclusions from an experiment with college Juniors as well as Seniors.

Studying the reading vocabularies of fifth-grade pupils, Sanderson (26) found that many children lack adequate understanding of words met in their informational reading. She concluded that direct instruction in developing and clarifying meanings of words will increase the reading vocabulary and, in addition, will be an aid in general language development.

The study of Bradley, Cahill, and Tate (4) using fifth- and eighth-grade pupils demonstrated that clarification of meaning is an important factor in acquiring a reading vocabulary. It further pointed out that composing

sentences with new words added no further meanings to those previously learned.

From the conclusions of the Shannon and Kittle (27) research, word study alone is not enough. Using 336 pupils from Grades VIII-XII, inclusive, they attempted to determine whether pupils remember the meanings of words when intensive word study is required. They found:

1. Vocabulary cannot be taught effectively by cramming. Although considerable immediate vocabulary learnings may result from cramming, they are not permanent.

2. Pupils who are told the meanings of words by their teachers, or by means of glossaries, learn more than those who look the words up in dictionaries.

3. When the purpose of a learning exercise is vocabulary development, the placing of a large number of words in continuous context has no advantage, and it is more helpful to underline the words in context than to leave them for the pupils to seek the meanings of without such motivation [27: 6].

Shannon and Kittle did not determine the extent to which concepts existed prior to the attempt to learn the meanings of new words. It can be conjectured that at the secondary-school level the experimenters selected as "new" words many that required the building of new concepts as well as the association of words and concepts.

Sachs (25) demonstrated that it is possible for adolescents to have encountered words in their reading many times without having learned their meanings. Something more than wide reading is necessary for vocabulary-building.

MULTIPLE MEANINGS OF WORDS

Related to, but somewhat opposed to, the research in vocabulary-building is the research in semantics. The investigator in vocabulary meaning assumes that the more words the child knows, the more readily will his concepts be formed. The semanticist says, "Words do not mean what they say." But through semantics, another factor influencing concept development is recognized, namely, the multiple meanings of words.

The real significance of multiple meanings arises from the fact that we must receive so many of our concepts through stimuli in the form of words, spoken or written. For the reception of spoken or written language, there must be agreement upon the meanings of words. When words may have from one to a score of accepted meanings, the recipient is faced with a large sorting task with each sentence he reads or hears. Let him fail to sort out the intended meaning of a word, and the concepts he forms may be totally wrong.

A growing mass of research deals with the multiple meanings of words. A brief review of the pertinent work in this area will establish the fact that multi-meaning is a factor influencing concept development.

Foster (9) found that words possessing the largest number of meanings tend to be used more often with more different meanings than those possessing a smaller number of meanings. He gathered 1,976 compositions on 500 topics from pupils in 38 school

systems in 13 states. His purpose was to determine the "socially" important meanings with which 100 selected words of high frequency usage were used in a wide and representative sampling of written composition. Words were placed in the following four groups (examples of the words listed are included here):

1. Group I.—Words with 45 or more meanings: (a) *point*, 110 meanings; (b) *take*, 106 meanings; (c) *cut*, 108 meanings.
2. Group II.—Words with 27-44 meanings: (a) *bed*, (b) *board*, (c) *small*.
3. Group III.—Words with 15-26 meanings: (a) *book*, (b) *church*, (c) *picture*.
4. Group IV.—Words with 13 or fewer meanings: (a) *act*, (b) *boy*, (c) *fear* [9: 294].

He concluded that (1) the number of meanings with which the check words in the study are used is more dependent upon the number of meanings the word has than is the frequency with which the word occurs; (2) approximately half of the total meanings with which multi-meaning words are used appear to be socially important; (3) the socially important meanings of the large majority of the words bear 70 per cent or more of the total usage of the word; and (4) words with the largest number of meanings tend to be used with a larger number of socially important meanings than do words possessing a smaller number of meanings.

In her study on the meaning load of two books, Bachmann (1) found that 1,291 words had more than one meaning: (1) 676 had 2 meanings, (2) 327 had 3 meanings, (3) 107 had 4 meanings, and (4) 181 had 5-25 meanings.

She found that emotional experiences become associated with meanings and senses of verbal symbols just as surely as with more concrete objects and symbols of environment. Meaning is a function of the ideational and emotional experiences of the interpreter and user of verbal symbols. The kind of thought or idea that the reader gets from the printed page is not identical with that of the writer, nor will it be identical among a group of readers even with a homogeneous background.

Looby (16, 17) found that many meanings and shades of meanings are derived from the same material even though the individuals are in the same group under the same instructor. A selection was taught very thoroughly to a group of seventy-seven sixth-grade subjects. The passage that was taught was then used as a basis for understanding a second and a third passage from the same book. The second and third selections were developed through silent reading. The subjects were tested on the second and third passages. The findings were:

1. Children had difficulty in expressing their thoughts in writing.
2. Median scores on the tests averaged 64 per cent.
3. Children understood slightly more than 60 per cent of the words encountered in their reading.

In an investigation conducted by Richards (24) it was found that meanings tend to be dependent upon the multiple contexts in which they occur. Appropriate meanings at any given time depend upon the total context or setting. When words out of living con-

text are considered in the classroom, relevance to the child's experience is lost, and the word is therefore drained of meaning.

Lange conducted an investigation to determine, "through analysis of language situations and responses, the extent to which certain terms in educational psychology have common meanings for lecturers and students in an undergraduate core course in the psychology and practice of teaching (14: 642). *Curriculum and individual differences* are examples of the terms selected. His findings are paraphrased below:

1. From one semester's study of word meanings, 45 important terms in education did not have meanings in common for 168 students and the instructors.
2. Meanings of the terms remained relatively unchanged.

Lange concluded that there are vague, varied, and contradictory meanings for terms which name important concepts. Thus, there is reason to question the effectiveness of current instructional practices in the area of psychology and the practice of teaching.

Strong (30) found that pupils use different meanings for words of high frequency on lexical counts. She conducted a study on the meanings used for 50 high-frequency words by 490 subjects in Grade V. The words were selected from 4,073 spontaneous writings of pupils in 12 curriculum fields. Examples of words used are *make* and *pocket*. Strong found that a comparison of the occurrence of individual check words indicated that the range

of occurrence was from 1,439 times for *make* to five times for *pocket*. The total number of running words was 353,641. Her conclusion was that the range of frequency and occurrence for the different meanings of the check words used by the pupils was large. Fifth-grade pupils made use of 17 per cent of the 2,849 meanings for the words selected in this study.

Fries and Traver (10) found that the 850 words of Basic English represent 12,425 meanings in the *Oxford English Dictionary*, with 5,991 added senses not separately numbered.

In his study of the multiple meanings of words, Lorge (18, 19) found that the assumption that words of high frequency are readily understood is erroneous. Words like *game*, which appears among the first thousand words in Thorndike's list,¹ may be used with as many as fifteen meanings. Many of the most frequently used words are multi-meaning in value. No grading of vocabulary load can be made without reference to meaning. It will be discovered that the vocabulary load, even in primers, is not a function of the number of different words so much as it is a function of different meanings that pupils must understand and use.

Using college students, Lovell (20) conducted a study to determine the "Interrelations of Vocabulary Skills: Commonest vs. Multiple Meanings."

He found that (1) 43 per cent of the common basic words have multiple meanings and (2) that the average number of multiple meanings known by students was 145 out of a possible 222. Apparently intensity, or richness of vocabulary, is fairly closely related to extensiveness, or knowledge of single most common words; for general purposes one may be estimated from the other.

One means of developing concepts is through extending vocabularies. The investigations of Blair (3), Curoe and Wixted (5, 6), Gray and Holmes (11), Haefner (12), Liddell (15), Newburn (21), Sachs (25), Sanderson (26), Shannon and Kittle (27), Traxler (31), Waring (32), and Waters (33)—all point out that direct study of words and their meanings is productive in extending vocabulary.

SUMMARY

A review of research indicates that concepts are better developed when these conditions are present.

1. Provision is made for a wide range of experiences, vicarious as well as direct.

2. Careful instruction in word study should be provided to extend vocabularies and knowledge of word meanings. In this instruction, high-level concepts should be related to those at lower levels, and careful differentiation must be made between mere verbalism and established concepts.

3. The multiple meanings of words provide a means of developing concepts based on vicarious experiences

¹ Edward L. Thorndike, *A Teacher's Word Book of the Twenty Thousand Words Found Most Frequently and Widely in General Reading for Children and Young People*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931.

received through language. It must be recognized, however, that high-frequency words are not readily understood, although many of the most frequently used words are multi-meaning in value.

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THE UNASSIGNED TEACHER

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AN "UNASSIGNED TEACHER" is a regular member of the staff whose program is arranged so that it is possible for him to accept a great variety of assignments other than those expected of the classroom teacher. For some time in our school the idea of an unassigned teacher had seemed both feasible and attractive. The potential resources of such a program could be an asset to the school, the principal, the teachers, and the parents. In the year 1951-52, although no extra teacher was added to our staff, we were able to organize in such a way as to free one teacher in our group from regular classroom teaching duties. The results of having such an unassigned person available have been far beyond our expectations.

QUALIFICATIONS AND ACTIVITIES OF THE UNASSIGNED TEACHER

In selecting our unassigned teacher, we gave attention to certain qualifications that seemed essential. First, the person for the position should be selected from the present staff. Second, the person should possess a personality which would allow him to work easily with his peers. Third, the person would need to be thoroughly aware of

instructional problems, not only knowing the context of subject matter sufficiently to grasp situations but being competent to give immediate assistance in developing thoughtful approaches and in suggesting ways of implementing ideas on practice.

Our unassigned teacher participated in the activities described below.

1. Her time was allotted so that she was able to work directly with new teachers. This was of primary importance. Every year we have new members on our faculty—some who have had teaching experience and some who have only recently graduated from college. The unassigned teacher aided in orientation, in helping with materials, and in counseling and forestalling possible pupil-teacher pitfalls.

2. In our school the unassigned teacher directs the activities of the school library. She works with a group of fifth- and sixth-grade children, training them in library skills and preparing them as library assistants to individual grades. In this work she has contact with both the library and the classroom. Because of her help, much more than the usual amount of time and effort has been devoted to teaching good usage in the library.

3. The unassigned teacher has freed teachers for conferences, helped with trips, and planned work for children with difficulties. In fact, considerable time has been spent with children with serious difficulties in reading.

4. The unassigned teacher acts as the co-ordinator for our group of gifted children, a group of fourth- and fifth-graders with intelligence quotients of 125 or better. She frees a teacher who is able to give instruction in conversational French to the group. The teacher of French is thereby able to devote her full attention to the special group without the pressure of wondering what her own class is doing in her absence.

5. Special cases for study, such as children in the low-intelligence group, have received more careful attention because of the assistance given by the unassigned teacher. Plans have been formulated to assist teachers working with these children.

6. Projects of special interest to the whole school have been carefully followed and co-ordinated, with greater continuity and less loss of time. There was always a person available to help plan committee work—if not to initiate it, at least to follow through on plans for group work.

7. The amount of committee work in a school system varies with each community. In our community, committee work seems to be an essential part of the school system, and the principal must be away from his school frequently. With an unassigned teacher available, the problems arising

in his absence can be given immediate attention rather than be put aside until his return. Most problems involving teacher, parent, or pupil can be met as the need arises.

BENEFITS TO OUR SCHOOL

The benefits to our school of having an unassigned teacher may be summarized as follows:

1. The co-ordination of instruction is vastly improved.

2. New teachers have gained greater confidence because professional help is forthcoming immediately.

3. Special studies that are on a continuing basis have developed with greater continuity and are more closely allied with the classroom. For example, the special work in reading or the study of individual children with extreme needs has greater significance.

4. Special projects are developed with greater ease, especially if a teacher who needs resource assistance knows that help is always available.

5. Releasing teachers for special projects has added impetus to the program.

6. Having a teacher available for the many demands that principals cannot always look after has brought greater stability in the real function of a school.

FUNCTIONS OF THE PLAN

I feel that much thinking and planning in most schools has been centered in an organization that has been authoritatively controlled by the principal, with little participation by the teachers and parents. For a school to function democratically, we must have "team planning." As this idea is projected for future planning, it seems important that we find more ways to work with teachers, always sifting out

and sharing ideas, one teacher with another, and teacher with principal. This is difficult in a large school, but, with the help of the unassigned teacher who moves from classroom to classroom, we have found that the chances of sharing and participating in democratic action are improved.

The unassigned teacher plan allows a partial solution to an important administrative problem, namely, that of finding time to give adequate leadership to the development of the schools' instructional program. For example, the administrator may be studying the revision of arithmetic methods and techniques, on either a city-wide basis or in a single school. Nevertheless, much time is needed during the school day to work with committees of teachers and with supervisors. Prior to this plan, the administrator may have worked on studies at odd times with many interruptions. The plan provides continuity in the school and makes possible the type of thorough study of curriculum problems that is necessary in dealing with arithmetic.

Working with teachers on instructional problems is of major importance. Teachers and administrators should be able to bite into the problems without interruptions. Instead of

meeting after school hours, following a strenuous day of teaching, the teacher can meet with the administrator during the school day, free from the cares of the classroom. Together they can devote complete concentration on pertinent instructional plans.

If an administrator has the responsibility of employing teachers, then it behooves him to hire the best personnel available. It goes without saying that the selection of staff plays an important role in the kind of instruction that takes place in the classroom. Under a plan of this kind, the administrator can spend an adequate amount of time away from the school making a thorough canvass of candidates by exploring their training and their records in their previous employment.

The consensus of our teaching staff is that the idea of an unassigned teacher has advantages which make it so commendable that it should be continued as a permanent part of our organization. We think, too, that without added expense many schools, both city and county, throughout the country could adopt the unassigned-teacher plan. We heartily recommend the plan for consideration.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

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THIS BIBLIOGRAPHY presents a selection from the materials on public school administration published from November 1, 1951, through October 30, 1952. The references which are included are organized in accordance with a pattern established in the 1950 issue of this series of bibliographies, with sections devoted to (1) general administration, (2) teaching staff and other employees, (3) pupil personnel services, (4) finance and business administration, (5) school plant, and (6) public relations.

The selection of references has been made from available books, reports, monographs, and magazine articles. Unpublished dissertations and foreign-language publications have not been canvassed. In choosing the references which are to be included in these annual bibliographies on public school administration, publications are sought which are notable contributions along one or more of the following lines: (1) reports of research investigations; (2) extensive, comprehensive treatments of topics relating to school administration; (3) significant publications of organizations or agencies; and (4) exceptionally clear

and well-organized discussions of problems in public school administration.

Inevitably, the criteria for selecting references are arbitrary, and the actual selection of references is subjective. Hence, many articles and books not included in the list are certainly as deserving, especially in terms of their own purposes, as the items which are included in this bibliography. There appears to have been, during the period covered by this issue of the "Selected References in Public School Administration," a strong upswing in both the quantity and the quality of published material on school administration, in comparison with previous years. Several active movements in the field of school administration, particularly with respect to research and other university and organizational work, probably account for the increase in publication activity.

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION¹

1. *The American School Superintendency*.
Thirtieth Yearbook of the American

¹ See also Item 17 (Herriott) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1953, issue of the *School Review*, and Items 633 (*Education in Rural Communities*), 653 (Miller), and 654 (Pittenger) in the list of selected references ap-

Association of School Administrators. Washington: National Education Association, 1952. Pp. 664.

Discusses the significance of school administrators in society and reports the results of a comprehensive survey of the present status of school superintendents in the United States.

2. BAKER, JOHN E. "Selection of Superintendents," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXXIV (October, 1952), 6-8.

On the basis of a survey made in thirteen midwestern states, summarizes the procedures used by school boards for selecting superintendents.

3. BEACH, FRED F., and GIBBS, ANDREW H. *The Personnel of State Departments of Education*. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. Misc. No. 16, 1952. Pp. vi+46.

Presents a study of the status of professional personnel in state departments of education. Points out trends, common elements of development, and unresolved basic issues.

4. BOLMEIR, E. C. "Superintendents Appraise Pre-service Training," *School Executive*, LXXI (July, 1952), 43-45.

Reports the opinions of one hundred superintendents in North Carolina as to the adequacy of pre-service training in major areas of school administration.

5. BUTTERWORTH, JULIAN E., and DAWSON, HOWARD A. *The Modern Rural School*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xii+494.

Describes significant socioeconomic changes in rural America, the educational program needed by rural children, and steps needed to achieve this educational program. Of value not only to rural teachers and school administrators but also to lay leaders.

6. CAMPBELL, CLYDE M. (editor). *Practical Applications of Democratic Administra-*

tion. New York: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. x+326.

tion. New York: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. x+326.

Seeks to "give added meanings and new interpretations to the concept of educational leadership." Writers from several fields, including education, psychology, and sociology, have contributed to this integrated and consistent treatment.

7. EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. *Public Schools: A Top Priority*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1951. Pp. 16.

A vivid description of the national emergency and of the vital role of public education in the current crisis. Emphasizes the urgent need for school buildings and staff.

8. ENGELBERT, ERNEST A. "Educational Administration and Responsible Government," *School and Society*, LXXV (January 19, 1952), 33-36.

A forceful statement of the thesis, violently opposed by most educational leaders, that school administration should be integrated into the framework of general government.

9. HARAP, HENRY. "Do School Surveys Produce Results?" *Nation's Schools*, XLIX (March, 1952), 35-38.

The most recent of the several research studies now available on the influence of surveys. All the studies show that school surveys contribute to educational programs, especially when used as a resource by an alert and sympathetic local school administrator.

10. KEESECKER, WARD W. *Know Your School Law*. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Bulletin 1952, No. 1. Pp. iv+26.

Discusses the relation of school law to the quality and efficiency of education. Includes a selected and annotated bibliography.

11. *Legal Status of the School Superintendent*. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXIX, No. 3.

Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1951. Pp. 87-132.

Reports the findings of a study of state legal codes and court decisions relating to powers and duties, selection, tenure, and salaries of city and county school superintendents.

12. MCINTYRE, KENNETH E. "Progress in School District Reorganization," *American School Board Journal*, CXXIV (May, 1952), 47-49, 80.

Brings up to date a 1949 study of school district reorganization progress in each of the forty-eight states.

13. MORT, PAUL R. "Educational Adaptability," *School Executive*, LXX (November, 1951), 46-47.

Summarizes studies on the rate of educational change in the United States. Concludes that change has been slow and that it is unwise to attempt to force adaptations.

14. REUTTER, E. EDMUND, JR. *The School Administrator and Subversive Activities*. Teachers College Studies in Education. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. Pp. xii+136.

The study provides (1) a compilation, on a nation-wide basis, of factual information bearing on restraints upon public school personnel; (2) a composite picture of the thinking of 236 educational leaders with regard to their preference among selected policies and practices relative to alleged subversive activities among public school personnel; and (3) guiding principles for administrative action with respect to this problem.

15. ROSS, DONALD H. (editor). *Public Understanding of Schools and Their Power. Administration for Adaptability*, Vol. I. New York: Institute of Administrative Research, Metropolitan School Study Council, 1951. Pp. 190.

The first in a series of three volumes designed to extract the most significant as-

pects of forty-eight doctoral studies and twenty-two other books, reports, and miscellaneous documents bearing on the adaptability of American school systems.

16. *Schools and the 1950 Census*. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXIX, No. 4. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1951. Pp. 135-71.

Presents population characteristics and population changes as reported in the 1950 census. Discusses the implications of the census figures for education.

17. STAPLEY, MAURICE E. *Attitudes and Opinions of School Board Members in Indiana Cities and Towns*. Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXVII, No. 2. Bloomington, Indiana: Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University, 1951. Pp. 42.

Summarizes the results of a questionnaire sent to school-board members and to city and town superintendents.

18. STUMPF, W. A., and MILLER, W. STARR. "A Comparison and Evaluation of the Principal Methods of Selecting County Boards of Education in Alabama and Georgia," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLV (December, 1951), 241-54.

Indicates that popular election of members of county boards of education results in bodies not inferior to those chosen by the grand jury. Recommends popular election as more democratic.

19. TUTTLE, EDWARD M. "The Unique Functions of School Boards," *School Executive*, LXXI (March, 1952), 19-52.

The executive director of the national organization of state school board associations reviews the unique position and responsibility held by boards of education in this country.

20. *What To Pay Your Superintendent*. Washington: American Association of

School Administrators and National School Board Association, Inc., 1952. Pp. 20.

Presents principles which may be used by a board of education in establishing the superintendent's salary.

TEACHING STAFF AND OTHER EMPLOYEES²

21. BARLOW, ALICE TOWNSEND. "Teachers Rate Their Professional Growth as Basis for Salary Increase," *Nation's Schools*, XLIX (March, 1952), 63-65.

Describes a method whereby annual salary increments are made contingent upon an evaluation of teachers' growth by a special committee of the local teachers' association.

22. BEECHER, DWIGHT E. "New York State Again Endorses Merit Principle," *American School Board Journal*, CXXIII (December, 1951), 27-28, 68.

Reports a substantial increase in teachers' salaries in New York State and concludes that the teacher-evaluation plan which is mandated by state legislation has been responsible to some extent for the favorable increase in salaries.

23. CHASE, FRANCIS S. "Factors for Satisfaction in Teaching," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXXIII (November, 1951), 127-32.

Reports factors, such as adequacy of salary, freedom to plan, and extent of democratic leadership, which are associated with job satisfaction, according to questionnaire returns from 1,784 teachers in 43 states.

24. EIKENBERRY, D. H., chairman, Committee on Training and Experience Standards for Principals of Secondary Schools. "Training and Experience Standards for Principals of Secondary Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (November, 1951), 5-62.

Reports a study of certification standards for high-school principals in the United

States. Recommends standards for the position.

25. EZELL, L. B., and SANDERS, HOLLIS R. "Custodial Employment Practices in Texas Schools," *School Executive*, LXXII (September, 1952), 71.

Reports a study of custodial employment practices in 133 school systems in Texas. Concludes that qualification standards are only fair and salaries are inadequate, although there is little uniformity of employment practices.

26. GARBER, LEE O. "School Boards Can Remove Inefficient Tenure Teachers," *Nation's Schools*, XLVIII (December, 1951), 63-64.

Reviews a case in which an Ohio court upheld a school board that removed a tenure teacher for inefficiency. The author makes valuable suggestions as to proper procedures in cases of a similar nature.

27. GIVENS, WILLARD E. "Educational Needs and Manpower Problems," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (October, 1952), 53-56.

A clear presentation of the need for more teachers to staff the nation's schools.

28. HADLEY, WILLIAM M. "The Selection of School Principals," *American School Board Journal*, CXXV (July, 1952), 25-26.

Summarizes the procedures used by ten selected school systems in the selection of principals.

29. HASKEW, L. D. "Public School Employment Policies That Affect Teacher Education," *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (March, 1952), 3-6.

Points out the close reciprocal relation between employment practices and practices in teacher education and suggests modifications in employment procedures which may aid in the improvement of teacher education.

30. JARVIS, E. D. "Salary Formula for Principals," *School Executive*, LXXI (December, 1951), 44.

² See also Item 780 (Maul) in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

Outlines a formula for principals' salaries based upon a study of principals' salaries in Ohio in 1949.

Discusses the problems of teacher accreditation on a national scale and emphasizes the importance of high standards for local employment as a foundation for high accreditation standards.

31. KAPLAN, LOUIS. "The Annoyances of Elementary School Teachers," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLV (May, 1952), 649-65.
Reviews an investigation of factors which disturbed 204 elementary-school teachers. Problems of child behavior exceeded problems of administration or faculty relationships in frequency as sources of annoyance.
32. *Leaves of Absence Regulations for Teachers in 447 School Systems, 1950-51*. Educational Research Service Circular No. 5. Washington: American Association of School Administrators and Research Division of the National Education Association, 1952. Pp. 42.
Gives information regarding current practices. The number of schools having cumulative sick leave programs has increased from 14 per cent in 1930 to 64 per cent in 1950.
33. LEEDS, CARROLL H. "A Second Validity Study of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory," *Elementary School Journal*, LII (March, 1952), 398-405.
Reaffirms the findings of an earlier study on the validity of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory in predicting the social-emotional climate that a teacher will maintain in the classroom.
34. *Salary Schedules for Principals*. Educational Research Service Circular No. 3. Washington: American Association of School Administrators and Research Division of the National Education Association, 1952. Pp. 21.
A report of salary schedules for principals in cities over 100,000 in population. Most frequent practice provides for a separate schedule in which classifications are based on both size of school and level of preparation.
35. STINNETT, T. M. "Superintendents Have a Key Role To Play in Teacher Accreditation," *Nation's Schools*, L (October, 1952), 48-50.
36. *Teacher Personnel Practices, 1950-51: Appointment and Termination of Service*. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXX, No. 1. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1952. Pp. 1-31.
Reports personnel practices for 1,615 school systems in cities with populations of about 2,500. Gives information on practices of selection, recruitment, standards of eligibility, appointment, orientation, and termination. Concludes that much progress has been made in recent years toward establishing sound personnel practices.
37. *Teacher Personnel Procedures, 1950-51: Employment Conditions in Service*. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXX, No. 2. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1952. Pp. 35-64.
Reports on salary, in-service education, and sick leave practices in 1,615 school systems in cities with populations above 2,500.
38. UNRUH, ADOLPH. "Can Men Afford To Teach?" *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXXIII (November, 1951), 138-39, 141.
Concludes, from questionnaire returns from 336 men in St. Louis city and county schools, that 92 per cent of men teachers have found it advisable to supplement their salaries from outside sources.
39. WOOD, HUGH B. "In-service Education of Teachers—An Evaluation," *Journal of Teacher Education*, II (December, 1951), 243-47.
Concludes, from the results of an Oregon survey, that teachers need and desire help for professional improvement from carefully planned and adequately financed programs of in-service education.

PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES³

40. BERTHOLD, CHARLES A. *Administrative Concern with Individual Differences*. Institute of Administrative Research Study No. 7. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. Pp. xii+226.

A report of an investigation into the attitudes of fifty high-school principals, and the policies and practices in their schools, regarding provisions for individual differences. The attitudes of the principals were found to be associated with related educational and pupil personnel practices in the schools.

41. DAILEY, H. WARNER. "Pupil Transportation: An Urgent National Problem," *School Executive*, LXXI (May, 1952), 67-69.

Discusses the present problems in pupil transportation and points to progress which is being made toward their solution.

42. ECKEL, HOWARD. "School Lunch Management Practices," *School Executive*, LXXI (December, 1951), 105-6, 107, 110; (January, 1952), 151-52, 154, 156, 158, 160; (February, 1952), 129-30.

Reports, in a series of three articles, a study of school-lunch practices in ninety-two cities. Concludes that leadership is essential to the development of a good lunch program. Urges emphasis on the educational values of the program.

43. JEFFERS, MYRTIS KEELS. *State Provisions for School Lunch Programs: Laws and Personnel*. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Bulletin 1952, No. 4. Pp. iv+40.

Traces the development of the school-lunch program and presents a study of the state administrative framework for school-lunch service in each of the states.

44. SHANE, HAROLD G. "Grouping Practices Seem To Favor Composite Plan," *Nation's Schools*, XLIX (May, 1952), 72-73.

³ See also Item 599 (*After Teen-Agers Quit School*) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1952, issue of the *School Review*.

tion's Schools, XLIX (May, 1952), 72-73.

States the results of a survey made of grouping practices in thirty-five outstanding schools. The trend is toward a "composite approach," with emphasis on social adjustment.

45. SHANE, HAROLD G. "Promotion Practices Follow Sound Psychological Principles," *Nation's Schools*, XLIX (June, 1952), 59-60.

In a nation-wide sample of thirty-five "educationally interesting" public elementary school systems, the author found a trend toward flexible pupil reporting and promotion policies based on social maturity.

46. VAN AUKEN, ROBERT A. *School Census and Attendance Practices in Upstate New York and Suggestions for Their Improvement*. University of the State of New York Bulletin No. 1399. Albany, New York: University of the State of New York, 1951. Pp. 85.

Estimates the error in school census figures by noting the differences between birth-rate evidence and census data for each age group and reports errors found in a sampling of school attendance records. Suggests improvements at state and local levels.

SCHOOL PLANT

47. BLUNDELL, W. I. "The Clerk of the Works in a Schoolhouse Construction Program," *American School Board Journal*, CXXIV (April, 1952), 41-43.

Points out the advantages of employing a clerk of the works on all schoolhouse construction and summarizes the duties and authority of this employee.

48. BUTLER, GEORGE D. "The School Plant as a Community Recreation Center," *American School and University*, Twenty-third Annual Edition, 1951-52, pp. 151-56. New York: American School Publishing Corporation, 1951.

Covers many factors important in the operation of a school as a community center and

sets forth definite policies and procedures which have worked successfully.

outstanding by state departments of education. Such factors as shape, flexibility, facilities, lighting, and acoustical treatment are included.

49. CAUDILL, WILLIAM H., and SCOTT, WALLIE E. "Can a Functional School Building Be Beautiful," *School Executive*, LXXII (October, 1952), 19-22.
Discusses the relation between function and beauty in school buildings. Emphasizes that schools are built primarily to serve children.
50. CLEVENGER, ARTHUR W. *Planning Elementary Buildings for School and Community Use*. Urbana, Illinois: Bureau of Research and Service, College of Education, University of Illinois, 1951. Pp. 52.
Discusses the trends in modern elementary education as they affect the planning of buildings. Emphasis is placed on the planning and construction of small elementary-school buildings for both school and community use.
51. COCKING, WALTER D. "Educational Building in 1950," *American School and University*, Twenty-third Annual Edition, 1951-52, pp. 53-64. New York: American School Publishing Corporation, 1951.
A comprehensive survey of the amount of educational building in 1950. Gives regional comparisons, discusses trends in school buildings and sites, and reports on methods of financing and costs.
52. DOMIAN, O. E. "Desirable Principles for State School Building Aid," *American School Board Journal*, CXXIV (January, 1952), 27-29, 94.
Reports a study of the appropriateness for Minnesota of principles used in other states in providing state aid for school buildings.
53. ECKEL, HOWARD. "Features of Outstanding Classrooms," *American School and University*, Twenty-third Annual Edition, 1951-52, pp. 143-50. New York: American School Publishing Corporation, 1951.
Summarizes the findings of a study of the features of four hundred schools considered
54. *First Progress Report of the School Facilities Survey, 1951-1952*. Washington: Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1952. Pp. x+78.
The first comprehensive report from the nation-wide survey of school building and site needs. Reports the background of the survey, discusses factors influencing school-house needs, and presents an inventory of present school buildings and sites in the nation.
55. GIBSON, CHARLES D., and SAMPSON, FOSTER K. "School Lighting Progress to Date and Some Suggested Next Steps," *American School and University*, Twenty-Third Edition, 1951-52, pp. 173-84. New York: American School Publishing Corporation, 1951.
Expresses concern about some recent trends in school lighting, especially practices which are not in harmony with the "brightness-balance" concept.
56. LAMBERT, A. C. "The Standard Seating Capacity of General-Purpose Classrooms," *American School Board Journal*, CXXIV (January, 1952), 36-37, 90.
Presents a technique for determining the student-station capacity of general purpose classrooms. Unlike other methods, the technique is not based upon square feet of floor space per student.
57. LARSON, C. THEODORE. "Unistrut for Low-Cost School-House Construction," *School Executive*, LXXII (October, 1952), 57-59.
Reports the progress made in a research project for the development of a standardized system of metal-frame, low-cost school-house construction.
58. LARSON, KNUTE, and STREVELL, WALLACE H. "How Reliable Are Enrolment Forecasts?" *School Executive*, LXXI (February, 1952), 65-68.

Explores several surveys of enrolment trends and discovers gross errors in many cases. Concludes that building needs cannot be determined by one-time surveys. Recommends the use of continuous forecasting.

59. LINDMAN, ERICK L., and OTHERS. *State Provisions for Financing Public-School Capital Outlay Programs*. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Bulletin 1951, No. 6. Pp. vi+70.

Presents a study, sponsored by National Council of Chief State School Officers, of the major issues in providing state funds for public school buildings. Summarizes the provisions for school plant financing in nineteen states.

60. *Manual for the Use of School Buildings and Grounds*. Administrative Manual No. 1. Cincinnati, Ohio: Department of Community Relations, Board of Education, 1951. Pp. 14.

Sets forth policies and administrative regulations designed to encourage community use of school facilities when these facilities are not needed for regular school purposes.

61. MORPHET, EDGAR L. "Sound Financing Necessary for Adequate Schoolhousing," *American School Board Journal*, CXXIV (February, 1952), 31-33.

Reviews progress made in several states in financing capital outlay for schools.

62. MORPHET, EDGAR L., and RELLER, THEODORE L. "The State's Function in Financing Schools," *American School and University*, Twenty-third Annual Edition, 1951-52, pp. 65-82. New York: American School Publishing Corporation, 1951.

Discusses the factors that have led to state participation in the field of financing school capital outlay costs, presents the characteristics of existing state support programs, and lists the criteria necessary for satisfactory future development.

63. SEAGERS, PAUL W. "Where Do School Design Specialists Fit?" *Architectural Record*, CX (November, 1951), 144-47.

Discusses the responsibilities of the public, of the board member, of the superintendent of schools, of the architect, and of the educational consultant in planning a school building.

64. SEAGERS, PAUL W. "Tapping Community Resources in Planning School Buildings," *American School Board Journal*, CXXIV (January, 1952), 25-27.

Points out techniques that may be employed to insure lay participation in school plant planning. Asserts that bringing the community in on planning is an important step in democratic administration.

65. STREVELL, WALLACE H. "Techniques of Estimating Future Enrolment," *American School Board Journal*, CXXIV (March, 1952), 35-38.

Presents four methods of projecting future school enrolments: (1) census-class projection, (2) retention ratio projection, (3) housing projection, and (4) total population forecast.

FINANCE AND BUSINESS MANAGEMENT⁴

66. EIDSON, J. L. "State Aid for Transportation in Arkansas Is Distributed by Means of Density Formula," *Nation's Schools*, XLIX (May, 1952), 84-86.

Describes the density formula used in Arkansas since 1951 in computing state aid for transportation and shows its advantages over such previously used devices as the "flat rate per child" and "pupil day miles."

67. GEIGLE, RALPH CALVIN. "Relative Efforts of the States To Support Public Education," *Elementary School Journal*, LII (December, 1951), 221-28.

Summarizes the results of a study of the relative efforts and abilities of the states to support public education and of the effect of federal aid on expenditures from 1929 through 1947. The study shows a significant decline in the variations between states in expenditures, although wide variations still exist.

⁴ See also Item 400 (Trillingham) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

68. HUTCHINS, CLAYTON D., and MUNSE, ALBERT R. *Federal Funds for Education, 1950-51 and 1951-52*. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Bulletin 1952, No. 12. Pp. viii+92.
Compiles the reports of all federal agencies in regard to financing education.
69. JOHNS, R. L., and MEYER, H. A. "Distributing State Funds: How To Estimate Taxpaying Ability of Local School Units," *Nation's Schools*, XLIX (February, 1952), 49-50.
Recommends the use of an economic index in estimating the taxpaying ability of local school units, and describes a new mathematical method of computing such an index.
70. JOHNS, R. L., and MORPHET, E. L. (editors). *Problems and Issues in Public School Finance*. National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. Pp. xiv+492.
Prepared by a special committee composed of twenty-two eminent authorities in the field of educational administration, this book is a comprehensive summary and analysis of research findings and significant experiences in the field of public school finance.
71. MILLS, ROBERT L. *A Method of Measuring the Financial Ability of Kentucky School Districts To Support an Educational Program*. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XXIV, No. 1. Lexington, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1951. Pp. 100.
Compares the merits of local assessments, state supervised assessments, and indices of taxpaying ability as bases for state financial aid to school districts. Presents a calculation for Kentucky of state aid based on state supervised assessments.
72. MORPHET, EDGAR L., and RICE, GEORGE A. "Unsound Financial Practices Handicap Education," *Nation's Schools*, XLIX (March, 1952), 42-44.
- Examines some of the prevailing financial policies and practices in the light of five important criteria.
73. NORTON, JOHN K. "Can America Finance the Kinds of Schools It Needs?" *School Executive*, LXXII (June, 1952), 19-22.
Discusses the economic obligations and resources in the United States as they relate to education. Concludes that this country not only can but must provide financial support for better schools.
74. SMALLEY, DAVE E. "The Schoolman Sees the Salesman," *American School Board Journal*, CXXIII (November, 1951), 53-55.
A helpful discussion of the relations which should exist between salesmen and school purchasing personnel.
75. TABLEMAN, BETTY. *Paying for Public Schools in Michigan*. Michigan Pamphlets, No. 21. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Bureau of Government, Institute of Public Administration, University of Michigan Press, 1951. Pp. 70.
A revealing discussion of the intricate relations between factors in a state school finance program.

PUBLIC RELATIONS

76. BLUE, JOHN L. "A School Board's Work," *American School Board Journal*, CXXIII (November, 1951), 27-28.
A newspaper reporter relates his experience with a school board. Cites the advantages enjoyed by schools that are supported by an informed public.
77. CAMERON, JAMES B. "Cleveland Citizens Meet Their Schools via Television," *Nation's Schools*, XLIX (June, 1952), 84-90.
An interesting account of the problems, pitfalls, and achievements in the use of this new medium for purposes of instruction and public relations.
78. ELZAY, JACK. "Are Schools Prepared for Lay Participation," *American School*

Board Journal, CXXV (September, 1952), 27-29, 92.

Discusses the advantages and disadvantages of lay participation in educational planning. Recommends lay planning if accompanied by strong and courageous administrative leadership.

79. *It Starts In the Classroom: A Public Relations Handbook for Classroom Teachers*. Washington: National School Public Relations Association, 1951. Pp. 64.

To help classroom teachers, such matters as report cards, homework assignments, and extra-curriculum activities are discussed from the public relations viewpoint.

80. LARSEN, ROY E. "The Organization and Work of the National Citizens' Commission for the Public Schools," *School Executive*, LXXI (January, 1952), 46-48.

The Chairman of the Commission summarizes the development, policies, and progress of the National Citizens' Commission for the Public Schools.

81. *Look at Your School*. New York: Childhood Education Committee, Public Education Association, 1951. Pp. 60.

A good example of the type of material being prepared to improve lay understanding of the school.

82. MORT, PAUL R. "Educational Adaptability, Administrative Concern with the Community," *School Executive*, LXXI (February, 1952), 41-43.

The third in a series of articles discussing educational adaptability. Reviews several studies dealing with school and community. Concludes that in any community great forces are on hand, which will help improve education if they are focused upon school issues.

83. SCHROEDER, HERBERT W. "A Rural School Principal Meets His District," *American School Board Journal*, CXXIII (December, 1951), 39-40, 69.

Relates the technique employed by a new principal in meeting students, teachers, staff, parents, and other residents. Concludes that meetings should come from natural situations and not formalized introductions.

84. SUMPTION, MERLE R. *How To Conduct a Citizen School Survey*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. Pp. xvi+210.

Provides a step-by-step outline for citizens who work in developing a long-range educational plan. Presents a flexible survey plan with special emphasis on school plant problems.

85. VENN, GRANT, and KATTERLE, ZENO B. "Let's Clarify the Relationship of Administrator and Citizens' Committee," *Nation's Schools*, XLIX (June, 1952), 51-54.

Discusses essential relationships between citizens' committees, the board of education, and the school staff. Although the school administrator is not expected to carry the whole load, he must, according to the author, exert leadership.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

EDWIN JOHN BROWN, *Managing the Classroom: The Teacher's Part in School Administration*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. viii+424. \$4.00.

Most beginning teachers, if asked what they feel to be serious problems connected with their new work, will almost invariably say that "discipline" gives them the greatest concern. However much their instructors in teacher-training institutions, or their administrative superiors through in-service training measures, assure them that the key to classroom control is to plan procedures and materials in accordance with basic educational principles, they continue to look for "know-how" rules that will insure them against classroom disorder with its attendant strain and worry. Older teachers, at times, perhaps a principal, sincerely seeking to assist, may recommend concrete practices that they found successful, forgetting that the situations faced by the new teacher may differ markedly from those which they themselves experienced. It is the time-worn problem of the teacher's recognizing that success lies in the application of principles rather than in the use of ready-made procedures in situations that arise in the various areas of classroom management. It is with this aspect of the teaching process that the book under review is chiefly concerned.

The first section of *Managing the Classroom* deals with the nature and principles of classroom management. The major objectives of classroom administration, some broad fundamentals of management, interaction between teacher and pupil, and the classroom and school environment as factors constitute the chief content of the four chap-

ters of this section. The second part, which considers the role that classroom management plays in the growth of the pupil, consists of chapters dealing with attendance and membership, the pupil's attainment of self-control, the function of guidance in the classroom, and the need for incentives and motivation. How to secure results through such mediums as organization, promotion, learning materials, daily schedule, purposeful study habits, and evaluation of teacher-pupil effort and what the relationship of the teacher to the learning situation is in terms of personality, professional growth, relationship with administrators, and rewards for effort comprise, respectively, the contents of the third and fourth divisions of the book. Each of the twenty chapters, with the exception of the last, ends with a major discussion problem with questions, a set of questions on the chapter, and a bibliography. A Preface by the author precedes, and an Index follows, the main content.

Though the materials of this volume appear under long-established headings, the treatment is adequately modern. It is pleasing, for example, to observe the inclusion of such elements as "Fitting instruction to the development of the child," "Observance of principles of mental hygiene," "Partnership of teacher with parents," "Use of varied evaluation procedures," "Relation of instruction to daily-living activities," and "Attitude of the teacher toward the responsibilities and rewards of her profession." The book is written for the beginning teacher, but its content is of the type that he might re-read with profit after he has become established in his work. It will find its greatest use in teach-

er-training institutions and in workshops or institutes for young teachers in service.

PAUL R. PIERCE

Chicago Public Schools



WILLIAM GRIFFITHS, *Behavior Difficulties of Children as Perceived and Judged by Parents, Teachers, and Children Themselves*. University of Minnesota, Institute of Child Welfare Monograph Series No. XXV. Minneapolis 14: University of Minnesota Press, 1952. Pp. xii+116. \$3.00.

This study is one more valuable contribution to the relatively limited (but steadily growing) body of literature regarding the perceptions of discrete but related groups of individuals with identical behavior patterns. The behaviors which are examined in this instance are the behavior difficulties common to children between the ages of six and fourteen years. The three frames of reference from which these behaviors are analyzed are the parents', the teachers', and the children's. In some respects Griffiths' study parallels an investigation conducted by Jenkins and Lippitt.¹ I shall present in this review of Griffiths' volume a rapid overview of the author's research proper, chapter by chapter, and then conclude with a brief critique of certain facets of his study.

In his first chapter the researcher states that his aims are to match the perceptions of parents and teachers with the perceptions of the children themselves with respect to the children's faults and foibles and, further, to study "the common behavior difficulties of children in relation to chronological age and especially in relation to socioeconomic status" (p. 4).

Chapter ii offers a fine overview of the

¹ David H. Jenkins and Ronald Lippitt, *Interpersonal Perceptions of Teachers, Students, and Parents*. Research, Training, Action Series, No. 1. Washington 6: Division of Adult Education Service, National Education Association, 1951.

work done thus far in attempting both to relate the attitudes of parents and teachers to children's behavior difficulties and to assess the relationship of children's socioeconomic level with their behavior difficulties.

The three hypotheses of the study are stated in chapter iii. Briefly, they are that (1) elementary-school children are mainly aware of their overt aggressive behaviors; (2) as children grow older, parents', teachers', and children's judgments of behavior difficulties are in greater agreement; and (3) youngsters from the middle class are conformists, showing less aggressive behavior difficulties and more withdrawing behavior.

An analysis is presented in chapter iv of the parents' responses. The researcher states that the findings partially support his hypothesis that children from the middle socioeconomic group are less overtly aggressive than children from the upper and the lower socioeconomic groups. He also states that the data from the parents support the hypothesis that the middle socioeconomic group of children shows the greatest amount of withdrawing behavior.

The teachers' responses are analyzed in chapter v. The major conclusions arrived at are that teachers do not tend to rate children of the middle class as less aggressive than those of the lower and upper economic groups and that "since the time of Wickman's early study,² teachers' attitudes [appear to] have undergone considerable change" (p. 56).

At the beginning of chapter vi the four questions used with the children are presented. They are clear, simple, and straightforward. In comparing the children's perceptions of their behavior difficulties with those of their parents, the researcher concludes (among other things) that "children are most aware of how their parents would like them to change their behavior in terms of what might be considered antisocial or ag-

² E. K. Wickman, *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1928.

gressive behavior . . . [and] girls who show the greatest number of withdrawing behavior traits are the least aware of them" (p. 88). In addition, a comparison of teachers' and children's perceptions of behavior problems leads the researcher to conclude that "children show some awareness of how their teachers would like them to change their behavior in terms of what might be considered aggressive or antisocial behavior" (p. 90).

Chapter vii, "Summary and Conclusions," offers a résumé of the study and presents the major conclusions in terms of each of the four psychological categories of behavior problems—aggressive, delinquent-related, withdrawing, and noncompliant behavior. These conclusions are related to the investigator's original hypotheses and are compared with the findings of previously reported studies. Some suggestions are made regarding fruitful problems for further research.

The Appendix at the end of the book contains the questionnaires used for collecting parents' and teachers' responses and certain other pertinent materials related to the carrying out of the study.

Since the material in this investigation is presented as a research project and not in the form of simple descriptive report, it seems appropriate to this reviewer to raise several questions about the design and procedure in the investigation. In the interests of brevity I shall raise questions about three points only.

1. The relationship of socioeconomic status both to behavior problems and to different individuals' perceptions of those problems seems central to this research. The only statement I encountered in this study regarding the basis for defining socioeconomic status was the laconic remark: "Socioeconomic status was determined by the occupation of the father" (p. 15). Ought not a much fuller description of the categories of occupations used, the source of the categories, the limitations within each occupation, and related information have been presented in

order to specify in some detail a variable of such central importance to this particular research?

2. The data regarding the perceptions of the nine hundred children who constituted the core population of the study were obtained by personal interviews with seven hundred of them and by written answers to questions on mimeographed sheets for the remaining two hundred. Are the data collected by these two methods comparable? Should they be merged (as they are) into one body of information?

3. Finally, and of considerable importance, I feel, the researcher reports (p. 16) that he memorized the forty-nine behavior difficulties listed in his questionnaires. As the children responded to the questions being asked them, he categorized and entered the responses in the appropriate column in terms of the forty-nine behavior difficulties he had committed to memory. How valid and reliable is such an on-the-spot, spur-of-the-moment categorization of children's oral responses? The researcher offers no information on the method or type of reliability and validity check conducted on the collection of these data, which represent the very heart of the study.

Nonetheless, despite these and other strictures that might be presented, this investigation does make a useful contribution to the literature in the area.

JOHN WITHALL

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KARL C. GARRISON, with a chapter by FLORENCE M. YOUNG and a chapter by FLORENCE HEISLER, *Growth and Development*. New York 3: Longmans, Green & Co., 1952. Pp. xii+560. \$5.00.

Research in child development is constantly increasing in volume. The interest of teachers and parents in securing scientific information about child development is in-

creasing, also. However, most of the research reports are not readily available to parents and teachers. For that matter, graduate students in child development with large libraries open to them often have difficulty in finding the research reports which are most relevant to their problems. Hence, there is a great need for books that bring together the scattered research findings and that include bibliographies which can aid the student in exploring this field. Karl C. Garrison's book, *Growth and Development*, is that kind of a book. It admirably attempts to summarize research findings which contribute to an understanding of the nature of growth and development and to the interplay of different forces upon the child's development.

After referring to the manner in which attitudes toward childhood have changed from the Middle Ages to the present time, the author summarizes several scientific techniques for studying children's behavior. This summary is followed by a short chapter on biological inheritance and prenatal development. The author proceeds to discuss the infancy period and presents research material, from a variety of sources, which includes data about size, body proportions, sensory equipment, motor activities, and emotional reactions. The last chapter in this introductory part of the book includes a brief account of factors which influence development, such as heredity, glands, nutrition, culture, and psychological make-up. It also outlines the general principles of growth, knowledge of which the author believes is helpful to parents and teachers.

Part II, Aspects of Growth, includes chapters on physical growth and health, development of motor skills, emotional growth and control, intelligence, language, general knowledge and understanding, creative expression, and the development of social behavior and attitudes. Florene M. Young contributed the chapter on language development, which has a section on speech prob-

lems and one on learning to read. Florence Heisler wrote the very interesting chapter on the development of social behavior and attitudes.

Part III, Personality Development, has chapters on interest, the nature and evaluation of personality, conflicts and adjustment, mental hygiene in childhood, adolescence, and maturity.

Eighty-five tables are scattered through the book, and there are frequent references to the scientific literature. The Author Index includes almost six hundred authors whose works are mentioned in the text. Freud is not among them. There are forty-one references to publications by Gesell, alone, and twenty-one to those of Jersild.

Each chapter is clearly and simply written with a Summary, a section of "Questions and Exercises," and a list of "Selected Readings." The Appendix has a selected list of forty-three motion pictures which can be used to accompany the study of each chapter.

This reviewer was impressed with the frequent references throughout the book to the dynamic nature of behavior and the interrelatedness of all factors and was disappointed with the very limited degree to which the author showed interrelationships. The development of the self or the formation of the ego were scarcely treated, nor were references made to the growing body of psychoanalytic literature. Though not always "scientific" in the sense of including objective tests and measurements, these materials seem important to this reviewer in contributing to insight into the dynamics of human behavior.

AUGUSTA JAMESON

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JULIAN E. BUTTERWORTH and HOWARD A. DAWSON, *The Modern Rural School*. New

York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xii+494.

Those rural educators who know Dr. Howard Dawson and have heard him speak at educational conferences and meetings can visualize him standing over their shoulder as the first three chapters of *The Modern Rural School* are read. The vision then disappears, and at no other time is one able to feel the nearness of Dawson, Butterworth, or any of the other authors. At no point after the first three chapters does there appear to be enough interchapter communication among the authors to give the reader a clear picture of the book's developmental pattern.

Not only are there blanks in interchapter continuity, but some chapters are out of place. "Resource-use Education in the Rural Schools" (chapter vi) comes before "The Rural School of Tomorrow: Purposes and Program" (chapter vii). Thus, it becomes necessary to go back to chapter vi after reading chapter vii to see if the fine ideas on resource-use education can be related to the purposes and program of tomorrow's rural school. The series of chapters on special vocational courses (pp. 175-239) come prior to the over-all interpretation of the philosophy of the community school in chapter xvii (pp. 294-309).

Fortunately, these weaknesses in over-all organization do not seriously limit the usefulness of the book. The contribution of this work to the literature of rural education is immense, and it comes at a time when there is increasing need for up-to-date reference material. This is primarily a reference-type book. It does not give direct teaching aids to rural teachers, such as those found in Wofford's *Teaching in Small Schools* or Hilton's *Rural School Management*. *The Modern Rural School* compares favorably with the Yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education. When used in conjunction with Part II of the Fifty-first Yearbook, *Education in Rural Communities*, it supplies every-

thing one could desire as study and reference materials dealing with modern problems and conditions of rural education.

The basic framework of the book is made up of four parts: "The Rural School in Transition" gives the reader a thumbnail sketch of the changes in rural education; "Some Social and Economic Backgrounds of Rural Education" brings to the field some of the most recent economic and social facts and treats their educational implications; "An Educational Program for Rural America" includes the philosophy and purposes of rural education and the broad elements that make up its program; and "Ways and Means of Implementing the Program" considers largely implementation via administrative means.

The merits of this book lie in two areas. First, the book brings a considerable bulk of new information to the foreground and treats it in relation to the schools. This is particularly true in the social and economic backgrounds treated in Part II. Second, the book has developed and clarified several areas of rural education that have heretofore not been adequately dealt with in the recent literature. The chapter on trends in rural life as related to education is an excellent condensation of what would otherwise need to be gleaned from several books in the field of rural sociology. The chapter on leadership as a means of improving education is realistic and applicable to the total field of rural education. The chapter dealing with the intermediate school district is the first mature textbook analysis of this developing type of administrative unit.

The Modern Rural School is a major contribution to the literature of rural education. Though it has weaknesses in continuity and organization, it brings to the reader sufficient new materials and new approaches to stamp it as the major publication in rural education appearing during 1952.

BURTON W. KREITLOW

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY,
AND PRACTICE

BREWER, JOHN M. *Wellsprings of Democracy: Guidance for Local Societies*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, 1952. Pp. xii+232. \$4.50.

BRUCH, HILDE, M.D. *Don't Be Afraid of Your Child: A Guide for Perplexed Parents*. New York 3: Farrar, Straus & Young, Inc., 1952. Pp. 298. \$3.75.

CLOUD, ROY W., under the sponsorship of the CALIFORNIA TEACHERS ASSOCIATION. *Education in California: Leaders, Organizations, and Accomplishments of the First Hundred Years*. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1952. Pp. xiv+296. \$6.00.

COOLEY, HAZEL. *Vision in Television: The Origins and Potentialities of Educational Television*. New York 18: Channel Press, 1952. Pp. 80. \$2.50.

DURLAND, FRANCES CALDWELL. *Creative Dramatics for Children: A Practical Manual for Teachers and Leaders*. Yellow Springs, Ohio: Antioch Press, 1952. Pp. 182. \$1.50 (paper), \$2.75 (cloth).

JELENSKO, VICTOR. *The Republic of the Schools: An Educational Program for Democracy*. New York 16: Exposition Press, 1952. Pp. 224. \$3.00.

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WAHLQUIST, JOHN T.; ARNOLD, WILLIAM E.; CAMPBELL, ROALD F.; RELLER, THEODORE L.; and SANDS, LESTER B. *The Administration of Public Education*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. viii+612. \$6.00.

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COSGROVE, MARJORIE C., and JOSEY, MARY I. *About You*. A book of information and activities to help you understand yourself—and others—better and to help you build a happier, more useful life. Family Living Series, Vol. I. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates Inc., 1952. Pp. 80.

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MARY CELESTE, SISTER. *The Story of Our Nation: Its Beginnings and Its Growth*. Revised by SISTER MARIE THERESE MARTIN. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1952 (revised). Pp. x+710+lvi.

PACKARD, LEONARD O.; OVERTON, BRUCE; and WOOD, BEN D. *Geography of the World*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1953 (revised). Pp. viii+499+xiii.

PARADIS, MARJORIE B. *One-Act Plays for All-Girl Casts: A Collection of Royalty-free Plays*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc., 1952. Pp. 194. \$2.50.

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versity of Wyoming." Prepared by LEO M. THOMAS. Bureau of Educational Research and Service Bulletin, Vol. X, No. 3. Laramie, Wyoming: College of Education, University of Wyoming, 1952. Pp. 32 (processed).

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- tion, Vol. XXI, No. 14. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1952. Pp. x+84.
- Television in Education*. A Summary Report, preprinted from the complete proceedings of the Educational Television Programs Institute held at Pennsylvania State College, April 20-24, 1952, Carroll V. Newsom, director. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1952. Pp. x+36.
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THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL

Volume LIII

★

FEBRUARY 1953

★

Number 6

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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USING THE LITERATURE IN CUR- RICULUM DEVELOPMENT

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT is a major concern of all persons interested in education. Consequently there has been and continues to be a steady flow of materials related to the question. If this material is to be used effectively—and much of it should be—the problem is one not only of reading the literature but of getting and implementing ideas from it. There is evidently a need for a framework for thinking about the material presented.

Furthermore, in reading an article which presents a criticism of education, one should make certain that he is clear about what is being criticized. Are the aims or the objectives of the program being attacked? Is the question concerned with methods or materials used? Or is the problem really one of inadequate evaluation so that the

strengths and weaknesses of what is being done are not brought out?

In writing about and discussing problems of curriculum development, Dean Ralph W. Tyler, of the University of Chicago, emphasizes the importance of considering four fundamental questions: (1) What educational purposes should the school seek to attain? (2) What educational experiences are likely to attain these purposes? (3) How should these educational experiences be organized? (4) How shall we determine whether these desired purposes are being attained?

The concepts of objectives, learning experiences, organization, and evaluation are certainly familiar to all of us. Nevertheless, continual thinking about what is involved in determining answers to each of the questions proposed seems a useful way of using much of the current literature.

In considering answers for the first of these major questions, Tyler suggests that objectives should be developed after considering data about the learners and about society, as well as suggestions from subject-matter specialists, interpreted in terms of the philosophy of education of the school and what is known about psychology of learning.

Opinions of public affect the schools One way of gathering data about society is by finding out what people expect of the schools. A valuable study of this type is described in the *Baltimore Bulletin of Education* for September, 1952. In this issue Robert S. Moyer reports a questionnaire study conducted by the Baltimore Junior Association of Commerce, in co-operation with the Coordinating Council of the Baltimore parent-teacher organizations, for the purposes of (1) furnishing educators, parent-teacher organizations, and municipal officials with a guide to what the people of Baltimore think about public education in that city and (2) furnishing the Junior Association of Commerce with information that would enable that organization to develop a strong and intelligent program in support of education.

As a matter of good public relations, developing an informed and critical public is essential to developing the kind of education that is needed. Thus, the Baltimore study has much to recommend it, particu-

larly in the way the data are tabulated and interpreted.

The report includes a copy of the questionnaire, a tabulation of results, and some suggested interpretations. Of particular interest for curriculum development is the response to the question below and the manner in which the results are tabulated and may be interpreted.

Educators believe that the school program should provide for the essentials listed below. As you read the list, try to decide the relative importance of these essentials. Select the *five* you think most important. Put "1" beside the essential you think most important; "2" beside the next in importance, etc.:

a) Understanding the duties and responsibilities of citizenship

b) Training for a job in which employment may be secured with only a high-school education

c) Adaptation of the educational program to the individual differences which exist among children

d) Learning the fundamentals—"the 3 R's (reading, 'riting, and 'rithmetic)"

e) How to think—developing reasoning powers and the ability to think independently

f) Character—loyalty, honesty, respect for others, respect for truth, self-discipline, personality, etc.

g) Guidance programs that will direct young people into fields where they stand the best chances for success

The following list shows the order in which the seven were ranked in importance:

Grand Total of All Schools

1. Character
2. How to think
3. Fundamentals (3 R's)
4. Citizenship

5. Guidance programs
6. Job training
7. Adapting programs to individual differences

Senior High Schools

1. How to think
2. Character
3. }
4. }
5. } Same order as Grand Total
6. }
7. }

White Elementary Schools

Same order as for senior high schools

Negro Elementary Schools

1. Citizenship
2. Character
3. Fundamentals (3 R's)
4. How to think
5. Guidance programs
6. Adapting programs to individual differences
7. Job training

Vocational Schools

1. Citizenship
2. Character
3. Guidance programs
4. How to think
5. Job training
6. Fundamentals (3 R's)
7. Adapting programs to individual differences

Handicapped Schools

1. Character
2. How to think
3. Citizenship
4. Job training
5. Fundamentals (3 R's)
6. Guidance programs
7. Adapting programs to individual differences

These data, when considered with other information about the students in the schools and about the various sections of the community, should

have significance for determining objectives and learning experiences. This report illustrates what can be learned about the schools in a community if data are gathered and tabulated so that differences are not masked. It suggests to school people, not only in Baltimore, but in other areas, the importance of thinking about curriculum development in the particular schools concerned.

Another community study is reported in *What the People of Bloomington, Illinois, Think about Their Public Schools*. This survey, sponsored jointly by the Citizens Advisory Council to the Public Schools and the Board of Education of Bloomington, was carried out under the technical supervision of Harold C. Hand, professor of education at the University of Illinois. It samples opinions of parents, non-parent citizens, secondary-school pupils, upper elementary-school pupils, and teachers in the public schools.

Teachers and administrators will find these two reports useful when they are concerned with studying the local community to gather data which will be helpful in making decisions about possible curriculum revision. Further help will be found in the bibliography included in *Teaming Up for Public Relations* (published by the National School Public Relations Association (1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. \$1.00), which suggests readings for teachers and administrators on the measurement of public opinion.

The place of the social studies Two articles by subject-matter specialists should be considered by all elementary-school teachers

interested in deciding on the objectives for the social-studies curriculum.

The first of these, "Social Studies for Grades IV, V, and VI" by Loretta E. Klee, supervisor of social studies in the schools of Ithaca, New York, appears in *Social Education* for November, 1952. In it Miss Klee reviews a bulletin, *Social Studies for Older Children*, issued by the National Council for the Social Studies. The review of the bulletin should convince all elementary-school teachers of the social studies of the importance of studying this report in its entirety, as well as the previous report, *Social Education for Young Children*.

The second article, in the same issue of *Social Education*, is "The World View and the Elementary School" by Margaret Cormack, of the social-science department of the State Teachers College at Fredonia, New York. This article is particularly timely when one considers the thoughtless attacks that are being made on teaching materials related to the United Nations. The author of this article states clearly her views about the present crisis and then suggests a series of possible new directions for education. These suggestions include possible changes in content, emphasis on particular objectives, and possible revisions of materials and methods. In each case, the

concrete suggestions made will aid the reader in thinking about what the generalizations might mean. Two of the author's suggestions are quoted below, although all of them are worth considering:

3. Stress both the similarities and the differences among the peoples of the world. Many teachers have wisely shifted emphasis from exotic and strange customs to universals, and the community of nations is building on this foundation of basic needs. But it is a disservice to give the impression that we are all alike. We are not, in philosophies or in institutions. Some differences make the world richer and more interesting, and we must learn to appreciate them, to develop a liking for variety. Others are those on which international organization founders; they must be understood in the light of their unique development and importance in other cultural settings. Cultures today, however, cannot remain isolated—and must develop workable patterns of co-operation. This will require an attitude of more flexibility and understanding than most nations have shown, so that "harmony" is the goal, not "our rights," or "our way."

4. Practice negotiation and conciliation. This is done to a certain extent in every "happy" classroom, but it is hard to achieve in the United States a culture in which the ambitious or the maladjusted could always move out with the frontiers. We Americans are such stubborn "individuals" that we often harm the "group," and our culture positively values rebellion and aggression. It is all the more difficult to practice negotiation when one is strong, as is the United States today. But we have never approved of autocratic imperialism, and we insist that we respect others' views, that we believe in democracy. This means, then, that we must negotiate, that we must build this kind of human relations into our personal experience.

Along this same line but more directly focused on the question of appropriate learning experiences is a publication by Leonard S. Kenworthy, "World Horizons for Children and Youth: A Scrapbook of Suggestions" (Brooklyn College Press, Brooklyn 10, New York. \$1.00). This material, as the author states, is suggestive rather than exhaustive. It offers a variety of proposals for developing world-mindedness (including the basic concepts that the author feels should be understood), for activities that can be carried through the different subject-matter areas, as well as a good bibliography of sources of material for teachers and pupils in elementary schools.

In the matter of organization of the material for developing world-mindedness as viewed by Kenworthy, one observes a trend, also reflected in other publications, toward a concern for education for "human values." The suggestions largely have to do with relating these ideas to the development of material in the already established areas of content rather than to propose the addition of new courses. These suggestions require a school or a teacher to think through the objectives and learning experiences of the curriculum when new material is considered. They also emphasize the importance of viewing objectives in terms of the behavior of the learner. If we have clearly in mind the kinds of behavior that we want individuals to develop, then we can choose more wisely the content to be used.

Ideas for learning experiences A number of recent articles or new publications should be of interest to elementary-school teachers who are concerned with developing or locating materials or are considering different methods of presenting curriculum materials.

The Elementary School Science Bulletin (National Science Teachers Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.) was first published in May, 1952. It will be issued four to six times a year and will include:

- Successful methods and techniques for teaching science
- Exchange of ideas relating to science problems
- Announcements of conferences and other events of interest to elementary-school teachers
- News of development in science and scientific events.

Teachers will certainly find it a helpful guide to materials, since it lists publications and audio-visual materials useful for elementary-school science.

Art Media for the Limited Budget, by Ivan E. Johnson, head of the Arts Education Department of Florida State University (Related Arts Service, 511 Fifth Avenue, New York 17), suggests useful material for the teaching of art. This is particularly helpful to classroom teachers who are not trained as teachers of art but are expected to work with pupils in the art area. The bulletin suggests material that is inexpensive or that can be found in the community. In addition,

it suggests reading that would be useful for the teacher. The final paragraph indicates the author's view about the nature of the teaching of art:

The teaching of art in the school often becomes bogged down in too much concern for materials and media rather than the process of creativity. The suggestions in this brochure are designed to help teachers locate materials for art, but it should be remembered that unless the approach to these materials is creative, art materials may have little value in the development of the student. Resourceful, imaginative teaching in art goes hand in hand with the accumulation of materials that lend themselves to creative art.

In a somewhat different context, the same idea of what is the focus of concern or what is the important objective, and then what are the possible ways of achieving it, is reflected in an article by Edgar Dale, "Reading—One Way To Communicate," appearing in the *News Letter* for November, 1952 (Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio). This article should be considered by all persons who are concerned with what is sometimes presented as an either-or argument—audio-visual aids *or* reading. We are concerned, and should be, with the individual's ability to read, and we recognize that he must have experiences in reading to acquire the necessary skills. We should also recognize the variety of ways in which ideas are acquired and the variety of media of communication for disseminating ideas. As Mr. Dale points out:

Some of the critics of the newer methods of communication do not understand what reading is and its intimate relationship with listening, viewing, discussion, and overt experiencing. You can't get meaning out of a book unless you put meaning into it. The richness of one's responses to reading is conditioned by the rich associations of the words read. These words are reminders of our past experience arranged in such a way as to suggest new meanings. Rich experiencing in one medium will carry over beneficially to all media. Improve listening and you improve reading, and vice versa. Good thinking, like good reading, is a way of rearranging our old experiences in fruitful ways.

But, replies the critic, there are many good and great books at hand. They have stood the test of time. However, to find excellence on the air is difficult. Won't television programs operate according to a kind of cultural Gresham's Law, with the bad driving out the good? There is this danger—and books face it too. The other day at the Chicago Air Terminal I looked over the 25-cent books to find something to read. A high proportion of those displayed there were trash. They were rubbish used to fill up the blank spaces in people's lives. If this represents the typical book-reading of adults, the net result can only be to drive people to more exciting ways of being bored. There is trash in all media, and we need discriminating consumers of radio, television, and films as well as print.

We shall get nowhere in our problem of helping people educate themselves unless we are willing to study how all people get their good ideas, big and little. Certainly our direct, primary source is from parents, playmates, other people. But where did our parents get their ideas? They got them from the same primary sources as well as from secondary sources. And the young parent is now being influenced by the newer mass media.

Most ideas, whether primary or secondary, are transported to us through signs and symbols. The printed or spoken symbol or

the less symbolic photograph are vehicles which carry meaning. They are devices which mediate between the speaker and listener, the writer and the reader. Print is one of the vehicles, the media for transporting ideas. It is more like other mass media than we may realize.

Listening, for example, involves the interpretation of *spoken* symbols. You must know the words in order to get the idea. Reading involves the interpretation of *written* symbols. In order to read you must know both the symbol as a spoken sound and be able to recognize it in print. You must learn a written symbol for a symbol that is probably first known only as sound. Written words are symbols of symbols.

The preschool child and the poor reader can get certain ideas from radio, films, and television, but be quite unable to get the same ideas from reading. Paul A. Witty states it thus: "The poor reader's difficulty is rarely a mechanical problem; it is usually an inadequacy in perceiving or associating meaning with word and other language symbols."

Viewing as a way of getting ideas also involves the understanding of symbols. But the symbols are often fairly concrete or semi-concrete; they are easily interpreted. A picture, a map, a poster, a drama, a field trip is less symbolic than words in written material. Usually spoken or written words accompany these visual experiences, thus making them verbal-visual. The motion picture has a spoken commentary, the photograph has a caption, the television program is a combination of viewing and listening.

I can summarize the discussion thus far by saying there is a common learning element in reading, listening, or viewing. It is the gaining of new experience usually crystallized in words. Each mode of communication increases our ability to respond successfully to verbal symbols.

What are the basic differences in the mass media? Film, radio, and television can create moods, carry an emotional impact denied to

most readers. Films are closer to reality, less abstracted. Films can speed up or slow down the normal time which elapses for the carrying-out of an event, such as the growth of a plant, the changing of the seasons, the building of an automobile.

Issues in evaluation of progress The question of evaluation is one that teachers at all levels need to consider. The current literature at the elementary-school level has included a number of articles on reporting to parents. These articles discuss the values and problems inherent in different methods of reporting. The parent conference method is discussed; the use of letters reporting student progress to parents is reviewed; and the use of detailed report forms and their meaning to parents are considered.

All these are important questions and should be given careful consideration. But still, one is forced to wonder whether too much concern is not being given to how to do a particular thing rather than to the question of what is being done. Interpreting the school to parents and reporting on the individual pupil's progress are both important. More adequate and comprehensive evaluation would aid in both.

Teachers should report their successes The illustrations given indicate a few of the many articles available to classroom teachers which suggest possible materials or ways of viewing methods of instruction in planning learning ex-

that they certainly do and that such letters (except those obviously from crackpots) have an influence quite out of proportion to their number. He said that the editors believe that, for every reader who will compose, sign, seal, stamp, and mail a letter, there are dozens of others who think the same but do not write. We hope that this is true in this instance.

While we are on this subject, we should like to express our deep appreciation of the work of the compilers of the references. The lists when published give little indication of the time and effort required to assemble them. The compiler not only must try to locate all significant references in a particular field but must also read them, evaluate them, and, what is perhaps most difficult of all, describe each reference in a very few words. On behalf of the Editorial Committee and, we feel sure, of many readers, we here publicly thank each compiler for this contribution to the field of education.

Reviews of books The book reviews make up another section of the journal which is sometimes not fully appreciated. The writing of a good scholarly review is a difficult assignment. In these days of high publication costs, a review which is no more than a description of a book's content is of questionable value. The reader wants an evaluation also. In many cases the best-qualified reviewers are often personal friends, or at least professional acquaintances, of the authors of the books, and this

relationship makes the reviewers reluctant to criticize the works adversely. The *Elementary School Journal* strives to offer reviews which are prepared by competent persons and which are in themselves scholarly contributions. We are grateful to all those persons in the profession who have contributed reviews, and we are proud of the consistently high quality of this department.

Articles published Only rarely does the Editorial Committee of the *Elementary School Journal* ask a writer to prepare an article on a particular subject. To be perfectly frank, we wish to avoid the difficult situation that arises if the article, when submitted, is not what we had hoped to get. On the other hand, we welcome articles that deal with any phase of elementary education. We prefer those that range from about 2,000 to 4,500 words in length, and which either report on a piece of research or present well-thought-out analyses of problems in the field. The Editorial Committee is well disposed toward discussions of controversial issues and would like to receive more good articles of this kind.

Supplementary monographs For many years the series known as Supplementary Educational Monographs has been published in conjunction with the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal*. The latest in this se-

ries are Number 76 (November, 1952), *Improving Reading in All Curriculum Areas*, compiled and edited by William S. Gray, and Number 77 (January, 1953), *Clinical Studies in Reading. II—With Emphasis on Vision Problems*, edited by Helen M. Robinson.

Improving Reading in All Curriculum Areas presents the proceedings of the 1952 annual conference on reading held at the University of Chicago. Papers by nationally known authorities consider the issues faced in improving reading in the content fields; steps involved in school-wide attacks on the problem; methods of promoting growth in and through reading in child-centered and in core curriculums; the attack on reading difficulties and the distinctive problems presented by poor readers; concrete procedures and techniques for increasing reading competence in science, arithmetic and mathematics, social studies, and literature; and administrative responsibilities for reading improvement. The papers deal with problems from the kindergarten level to and including the junior-college grades.

Each year hundreds of conventions and conferences are held, but the proceedings of only a few of these are published and become substantial parts of the literature of a field. The monographs that have come out of the conferences on reading organized by Professor Gray are noteworthy exceptions to this statement. This monograph

may be purchased from the University of Chicago Press at \$3.25.

Supplementary Educational Monograph 77, *Clinical Studies in Reading. II*, since it is based on experience in diagnosing the difficulties of poor readers and in providing remedial instruction for them, provides keen insights and helpful information concerning reading problems. Because reading difficulty is related to seeing difficulties, emphasis is placed on problems of vision. The publication describes the services of the Reading Clinic of the University of Chicago; reports research studies made by the staff; and provides lists of tests, remedial-reading materials, and trade books useful in work with retarded readers. This monograph may also be obtained from the University of Chicago Press. The price is \$3.75.

We conclude this section on editorial policies by pointing out that manuscripts suitable for publication in the monograph series will be welcomed by the University of Chicago Press. Although in the past University faculty members have supplied most of the material, this was a result of propinquity rather than of policy. Needless to say, manuscripts from persons in all institutions receive the same treatment, including submission to referees and editorial committees for evaluation and recommendation as to publication. Moreover, the Press is pursuing very aggressive policies with respect to securing manuscripts and promoting sales.

WHO'S WHO FOR FEBRUARY

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by MARY McCORD, instructor in the Department of Education at the University of Chicago. A. STERL ARTLEY, professor of education and director of the Child Study Clinic at the University of Missouri, demonstrates the relation that the ability to organize ideas and express them verbally bears to reading comprehension and skill in other language areas. PAUL R. HANNA, professor of education at Stanford University, on leave to do work with the Special Technical and Economic Mission, United States Economic Co-operation Administration in the Philippine Islands, and JAMES T. MOORE, JR., assistant professor of education at the University of Illinois, point out that English is, for the most part, a phonetic language, and hence maintain that children should be taught phonetic principles that will assist them in spelling the great majority of English words. LOUISE DURKEE WAGNER, sixth-grade teacher at the Elmwood School, Syracuse, New York, tells of the results of a test which she con-

structed and used to measure the map-reading ability of sixth-grade school children. T. L. ENGLE, associate professor of psychology at Indiana University, Fort Wayne Center, gives the results of a follow-up study of attitudes toward war of children belonging to the Amish sect (whose members, by faith, oppose war) and non-Amish children. KATHARINE COBB, school psychologist of the Ridgewood, New Jersey, public schools, presents a list of selected references on preschool and parental education.

Reviewers of books MARY HARDEN, director of curriculum in the public schools of Wayne, Michigan. CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN, professor of education at Pennsylvania State College. PAUL D. CARTER, assistant superintendent of schools, Birmingham, Michigan. RICHARD D. CRUMLEY, graduate student at the University of Chicago; formerly instructor of mathematics at Ohio State University. DOROTHY S. LASHER, teacher of Upper School dramatics, the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago.

ORAL-LANGUAGE GROWTH AND READING ABILITY

A. STERL ARTLEY

University of Missouri



NEARLY THIRTY YEARS ago two educators wrote, "In its feverish haste to teach the child to read, the school forgets entirely to teach the child to talk" (16: 121). This admonition is as pertinent today as it was when originally made. It is unfortunate, however, that in many quarters the relation of oral-language facility to growth in reading is overlooked. Consequently, children's reading growth is impaired simply because the program is not preceded and paralleled by a program designed to give consideration to oral-language development.

A child can read no better than he can organize his ideas and express them. This generalization is rooted in a principle basic to the psychology of reading. Reading is a process of thinking, interpreting, and reacting. Printed symbols serve only as triggers to release the thought-process, to set it in action. Since the thought-process cannot take place in a vacuum but must deal with ideas already in mind, the importance of comprehending, organizing, and using ideas on a spoken level is readily apparent. Too often we are inclined to think of reading as a subject to be taught—sounds, syl-

lables, and skills—rather than as a process of interpreting and reacting, the basic elements of which are laid down in oral language.

Since interpreting and reacting to printed symbols is only a short step removed from interpreting and reacting to spoken symbols, the need for attention to oral-language growth is of primary concern. When this fact is overlooked, many children are in the position of having to attach meaning to a printed symbol when the symbol lies outside their spoken vocabulary; to understand a printed ten-word sentence when normally they speak only a disjointed three-word sentence; to interpret a complex sentence when they have difficulty in using simple ones; to follow the organization of a new story that they are trying to read when they are unable to tell in logical order the events in the familiar "Little Red Riding-Hood"; to read complete sentences with expression when they are unable to give emphatic expression to their own ideas; to interpret punctuation marks when they attach no significance to gestures, pantomimes, and free play. Truly, we are asking many children to place the cart far, far ahead of the horse.

ORAL-LANGUAGE GROWTH AS A
READINESS FACTOR

The importance of oral-language growth as a requisite to successful reading is attested by the results of several studies of this problem. Shire (22) investigated the relation between certain factors of language development and reading achievement of first-grade children. Comparing a group of high achievers in reading with an equated group of low achievers, she found that, in terms of average sentence length, number of complete grammatical sentences, number of different words, number of elaborated sentences, and in the number of nouns and conjunctions used, the two groups were significantly differentiated. Shire writes:

Although it is obvious that there are still a number of factors pertaining to reading success and failure unaccounted for in these data, it is evident that the stage of language development the child possesses bears a definite and measurable relationship to beginning reading. . . . The relation between certain linguistic factors [such as those mentioned above] and reading achievement is fully as close as the relations usually found between intelligence tests, readiness tests, and reading achievement tests.

It would appear, then, that early observations of children's oral-language deficiencies and handicaps would have high prognostic value in determining important pre-reading needs.

Hildreth (13) studied the factors involved in the ease of learning and retaining sight words, an important fac-

tor in early reading. She found that the words most easily learned were the familiar words, "those seen or heard most often up to the time of the experiment" (12: 615). She adds:

Meanings, concepts, sound associations, and emotional connotations appear to be more potent in word-learning than is the configuration of a word or some characteristic feature alone [13: 616].

This study could leave little doubt that investing a word with rich meanings through vital experiences and oral use pays tremendous dividends when the time comes to learn the word in printed form.

The importance of language factors as predictors of reading success is recognized in literally all reading-readiness tests. Typical of this recognition is that in the Gates Reading Readiness Tests (7). The first subtest of the Gates test measures such language skills as these: ability to listen to what the teacher is saying, ability to understand what is said, ability to grasp and make use of everyday words and concepts, and ability to interpret pictures. Moreover, in the manual for the use of these tests, Gates states that, according to his research, one of the most important abilities for diagnostic purposes is the ability to grasp and enjoy the substance of a story in terms of its main idea and plot organization, expressed through the listener's ability to predict possible logical outcomes of the story. Because of the difficulty of objectifying this subtle language ability, it was not included as a part of the readiness tests. However, Gates's

statement has a direct bearing upon the question we are considering.

Space limits the discussion of other studies (1, 6, 14, 24) that show the relation of linguistic growth to successful reading experiences. The consistency of the findings and conclusions leaves little doubt of their reliability and validity.

ORAL LANGUAGE AND READING A UNITARY PROCESS

The importance of oral-language facility as a forerunner of reading instruction is indicated, furthermore, in studies that show an inherent unity in the several language areas. Seegers writes:

Language development is a unified, not a fragmentary process. Spelling, reading, and oral and written expression are different aspects of that development. They are inter-related. They reinforce each other [21: 49].

This being the case, reading cannot be learned in a vacuum, divorced from development in the other language areas. Reading draws upon the support of speaking, verbal understanding, and expression. In turn, reading contributes to growth in related language areas.

Hughes (15) made a significant contribution to our understanding of the inherent relationships among a selected group of language areas and abilities. Working with a group of fifth-graders, Hughes studied the relations among eight language abilities or skill areas, including reading, word meaning, sentence sense, and paragraph organization. Though oral communica-

tion, as such, was not included as one of the areas studied, word meaning, sentence sense, and paragraph organization bear a close relation to it. Altogether, twenty-six correlations were derived in his study. All correlations were positive, and over half of them were marked or substantial. In light of these relationships, Hughes writes:

The skills involved in reading, writing, speaking, and listening may be developed concurrently, each area reinforcing the other areas, and each, in turn, drawing support from the related areas [15: 96].

Gibbons (9) studied the relation between the ability of third-graders to read and their ability to perceive the meaning of sentences and to sense internal paragraph organization. She found a high correlation between these two abilities. On the basis of her findings, Gibbons suggests:

A possible relation between reading and language abilities exists, and . . . appropriate instruction in language as well as reading may help to develop the ability to see the relationships between parts of a sentence and thereby to bring about desirable achievement in reading [9: 46].

It is obvious that emphasis on the organization and oral expression of ideas would contribute materially to the ability to sense the relationships of which Gibbons writes.

Further evidence on language relationships comes from studies that show the commonalities between reading and listening. Blewett (3), Goldstein (10), Larsen and Feder (18), Young (25), and others have pointed out the unity in reading and hearing

comprehension. As Larsen and Feder say, "Comprehension is largely a centrally determined function operating independently of the mode of presentation of the material" (18: 251). If reading, then, is a thought-process, one can readily understand why instruction should be preceded by, or should be given concurrently with, a broad program in general language development—its organization, its interpretation, and its use.

ORAL LANGUAGE IN THE PATTERNS OF LANGUAGE SKILLS

Studies of the genetic development of language itself afford additional evidence that a rich language background is basic to successful reading experiences. Dawson (5), Gesell and Ilg (8), McCarthy (19), and Monroe (20) concur in the opinion that development of language includes such sequential gradients as these: interpreting spoken language; expressing one's own ideas with spoken symbols of increasing variety, length, and complexity; interpreting story content read by others in which the child senses the organization and sequence of ideas; developing a desire to read; and eventually learning to read. As in other areas of development, all children pass from one gradient to another in a definite sequence, though, of course, the rate at which they pass through the growth sequence varies from child to child.

Thus, again it is seen that reading behavior has a broad foundation of language skills that serve as potent

predisposers to success. On this point Dawson says:

In general, the child who is well advanced in respect to the reading requisites which are related to language development is usually prepared for learning to read. For those children who are inexperienced and deficient in some aspect, fill-in learnings at school will be necessary. . . . That is to say whatever is lacking in language development upon a child's entrance into first grade must be made up by a well-planned school program—enriched experiences, opportunities to mingle and talk with other children, much contact with literature, a rich nonreading program for the immature until life's growing-up process has brought the child to requisite maturity [5: 23].

This statement of Dawson points up well the contention that language development is sequential and orderly. Moreover, if development of one of the more advanced gradients (reading) is to be successful, growth in the earlier gradients must be assured. In one sense, then, for many a child the pre-reading program will be "remedial," the teacher promoting growth in needed areas in his language development. He will determine in what stage of language development the child may be and will promote growth in a sequential manner from that level to the point where reading instruction may be given with assurance that the child will be successful.

FACTORS IN ORAL-LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

This study of research and professional writings indicates the validity of the assumption that competency in oral language is an essential forerun-

ner of interpretation of printed symbols. These questions naturally follow: What are the "teachables" of oral language? With what types of language growth shall the teacher be concerned?

Several summaries and accounts may be found of the types of language growth to be promoted in the pre-reading level. Betts (2), Lamoreaux and Lee (17), Monroe (20), and Strickland (23) contribute much to our professional knowledge of significant areas of language growth, along with methods of fostering growth in each area. Close agreement on the areas described below would undoubtedly be found among authorities (11: 96).

Developing awareness of oral words as language units.—Children on the pre-reading level may be unaware that spoken language is composed of word units which in written form may be read and interpreted. Confusion will result if they fail to recognize that "gimmethe" is three separate words, "give me the," rather than one. An awareness of language units can be developed if the teacher speaks clearly and avoids blending the final sound of a word onto the initial sound of the following. Having children tell the omitted word from a sentence spoken by the teacher is another way of drawing attention to word units.

Enriching oral vocabulary.—Printed symbols can release meaning and initiate the thinking-process to the extent to which a given word is in the child's spoken vocabulary. The greater the range of spoken vocabulary, the great-

er the number of printed symbols which will have meaning to the reader. Participating in activities where deliberate attention is given to the development of concepts—discussing picture-stories, listening to stories read, hearing well-chosen words used by the teacher—are typical means by which oral vocabulary is enriched.

Strengthening meaning associations.—The more meaningful the word, the more easily it is retained as a sight word. In addition, the greater the depth of meaning that a given word possesses, the richer will be the understanding of the printed page. Discussion in which a word is used in different contexts, games that enrich the meanings of words, dramatic play in which use of newly acquired words is encouraged, help to strengthen the meanings of symbols and thereby aid in their retention.

Formulating sentences.—The basis of a complete thought unit is the sentence. A group of thought units, arranged in some sequential order, tell a complete story. Before a child can read meaningfully, he must be able to formulate complete sentences. "Tell us what Sally is doing," questions the teacher as the children interpret a picture-story; "How did grandfather help Sally?" the teacher inquires in another instance. Answers to these questions encourage the children to complete ideas and to express them in sentences.

Organizing ideas into language units.—A spoken sentence is the end product of arranged, organized, and vocal-

ized language units. Reading is understanding the arrangement and organization of ideas that an author has put on paper in the form of language units which can be read time after time with the same meaning. One way of promoting ability in this aspect of growth is for the teacher and children to build "script" charts or experience stories.

Using narrative expression.—An interpretation of narrative expression that one reads grows out of an appreciation of narrative expression that one hears spoken, and that one speaks himself. A child who possesses the ability to tell stories, using lively, colorful description and rich detail and dramatic conversation and giving action and events in sequential order, will obviously be in better position to interpret a story with those qualities than is a child who has difficulty in expressing himself. To "read it the way Jane said it" will be impossible for the child who has difficulty in using the dramatic quality of conversation. Consequently, the teacher sets the stage for this type of growth with much story-telling, dramatic play, and description of action and events. At all times he encourages dramatic conversation, colorful expression, and the use of rich detail.

Improving articulation.—Correct articulation is directly related to good reading in several ways. In the first place, the word-recognition program rests upon the ability of the child to use phonic clues and to reproduce speech sounds correctly. In the second place, the child's sensitivity to his own

faulty articulation tends to result in his withdrawal from speaking situations. Since early reading experiences are largely oral, the children with speech problems may turn from reading to avoid embarrassment. Consequently, the teacher, through the use of good speech patterns on his own part and through a program of speech improvement, is contributing to successful reading experiences.

Developing sensitivity to inflectional variants.—Another part of an independent word-recognition program is that of teaching the child to unlock words, recognizing the *-ing's*, *-ed's*, and *-s's*—the endings that tend to make a long word of a shorter known word. The foundation of that program lies in becoming sensitive to inflectional endings in spoken language. "What is the rabbit doing?" the teacher asks, and the child's answer, "Jumping," helps him to become acquainted with an important word form. The same happens with his response to, "What did Dick's dog do yesterday?" "Jumped." "What do you see in the picture?" "Toys."

Developing awareness of sentence structure.—By no means does the readiness teacher emphasize parts of speech, subject and predicate, and compound sentences. But a feeling for acceptable sentence organization can be developed which carries over into reading. The teacher directs the children's attention to a singular noun ("Dick"), then to a compound form ("Dick and Jane"), forcing the meaningful use of the conjunction *and*; then

to the plural verb, indicating the action portrayed ("are running"); and finally to the prepositional phrase ("to the house"). As children notice the sequential growth of an idea, a new feeling for sentence structure develops.

CONTINUOUS ATTENTION TO ORAL LANGUAGE

Language development, particularly in the oral area, is related to reading, not only in the early stages, but throughout the entire period of reading growth. As was indicated earlier, language skills and abilities show a considerable degree of "going-togetherness" as far along as the fifth-grade level. Oral language facilitates reading, and reading, in turn, facilitates oral language. The seventh-grade teacher who is developing the use of vivid and colorful words has the children *read* colorful writing, has them *lis-*

ten to colorful speech, and encourages their own *writing* and *speaking* in which colorful and vivid expression are used. All areas of language develop side by side; each contributes to the other; each draws support from the other.

This being true, it is important to give continued attention to oral language, not only for the sake of improving speaking, but for the contribution it makes to the other language areas. Monroe writes of this reciprocal relation as follows:

Increase in oral-language ability continues to improve reading comprehension, and in turn, new words and patterns of language encountered in reading find their way into oral expression [20: 258].

The child can read no better than he can organize his ideas and express them verbally. This is a generalization as important to the upper-grade teacher as it is to the readiness teacher.

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SPELLING—FROM SPOKEN WORD TO WRITTEN SYMBOL

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SPELLING as a subject of instruction is in need of re-examination. In spite of many experiments in methods of teaching this subject and in spite of extensive research into the nature of the spelling problem, we still have not found the answers we need. Children continue to display difficulty in learning to spell in spite of concentrated efforts to build "spelling power."

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

In any discussion of the subject of spelling in the elementary school, it seems necessary to make two basic assumptions: (1) the child is master of a rather large vocabulary of spoken words; (2) the child is master of a smaller but rapidly developing vocabulary of words that he can read. Too often we forget that the number of words a child can write is relatively small when compared with the number of words in his speaking and reading vocabularies. This difference is characteristic of an essential developmental process. Yet, in our desire for the child to become proficient in spell-

ing, we ignore this important fact and encourage him to try to master so many words, syllables, and combinations of syllables that he becomes confused and soon acquires a negative attitude toward spelling and writing.

Since one of the early developmental tasks of childhood is the acquisition of the patterns of speech peculiar to the culture in which he is maturing, the child, except in rare and unusual cases, enters school with his habit of speech well developed. The pupil's ability to speak easily gives teachers a point of departure for developing further abilities that the child must have for effective communication in our modern civilization. Our early instructional program should be so designed as to teach the child to "hear" and to "analyze" his speech in such a way as to facilitate the spelling of his speech. First, then, in our attack upon the spelling problem, we must recognize the child's spoken vocabulary and make sure, through constant checking, that he is pronouncing each word correctly and that he hears correctly the sounds that he speaks.

PHONETIC NATURE OF ENGLISH

What about these sounds? What about the excuse so many give for failure in spelling—"English is not a phonetic language"? It is true that, compared with languages of most primitive peoples and with the languages of many advanced countries, English seems almost monstrous in its complicated phonics. However, in spite of its many imperfections, the English system of writing is in origin and in its main features phonetic, or alphabetic.

The alphabetic nature of our writing can be most clearly illustrated when we combine letters that do not make a word and yet we find ourselves clearly guided to the utterance of the speech sound. Thus, anyone can read and spell such nonsense syllables as *nin*, *mip*, and *lib*. If our system of writing were entirely alphabetic (or phonetic), anyone who knew the value of each letter of the alphabet could write or read any word. In writing he would simply put down the letter or letters used to represent the speech sound that he wished to record. In reading he would merely pronounce or utter the speech sound indicated by the letter or letters. We can say, then, that the alphabetic nature of a language is indicated by the extent to which each speech sound of the language is represented by a specific symbol or letter.

To acquire skill in *reading* alphabetic writing, a person must develop a spontaneous habit of producing the speech sounds of his language when he sees the written marks which are con-

ventionally used to represent these sounds. In *writing* he must transfer the speech sounds to paper through the use of the written marks which represent these sounds. In this way, then, the person skilled in reading and writing the English language has a firmly established habit of thinking one sound when he sees the letter *p*, or of writing the letter *p* when he wishes to transfer to paper the speech sound represented by this letter. The fact that we can do both of these things in the case of nonsense syllables indicates that our language is alphabetic in principle, at least. Consequently, the degree to which our language adheres to this principle would seem to determine the value of the principle in the teaching of spelling.

AIDING THE LEARNER TO ACQUIRE
THE PHONETIC HABIT

It is important that we guard against placing too much stress on the nonphonetic aspects of the English language and that we utilize the most effective way of stressing the phonetic elements of our language in the building of spelling power. Certainly we must show pupils that many of the sounds used in the English language, particularly consonant sounds, such as *m*, *t*, and *p*, are spelled with the same letters without variation. Furthermore, we must take advantage of the fact that for almost every sound in the language there is what might be called a "highly regular" spelling. The sound of short *o* in *hot* is usually spelled with

the letter *o*; the sound of short *i* in *sit*, with *i*; the sound of *e* in *he*, with the letters *ea* or *ee*. The regularity with which a particular sound is represented by a particular letter (the alphabetic principle) must be brought to light, not concealed. We want the child to learn, for instance, that the sound which he hears at the beginning of such words as *give* and *get* is represented by the letter *g*. We should, however, not let him become confused by the fact that the same letter may be used to represent another sound: the sound that he hears at the beginning of such words as *gem* and *gentle*. Likewise, we must try to help the child understand that the *j* sound, which he hears at the beginning of such words as *gem* and *joy*, is more often represented by the letter *g* than by the letter *j*. Such variations in our spelling demand careful handling if we are to take full advantage of the alphabetic nature of our language.

Our instructional materials, then, should be based on a reliable and thoroughgoing analysis of the letter representations of the sounds which occur in the list of words we would use in teaching children to spell. We must know which sounds are consistently and regularly represented by a specific letter. We must know with what degree of frequency each letter which may represent a particular sound is actually used to represent that sound in the words of our spelling list. For example, how often is the long *o* sound, as in *no*, spelled *oa*? How frequently is it spelled *o* with a final silent *e*? What

is the frequency of the *ow* spelling? Of the simple *o* spelling?

Our effort should be to give the child some guidance in the right phonetic direction. Let him observe and learn first the principles that have the highest degree of regularity. The child will discover certain principles for himself, but self-teaching is likely to be slow, unreliable, and confusing. Teach him the principles which he will be able to apply immediately in spelling the words he needs in his written expression. Let him learn by heart the spelling of words he needs to use immediately but which introduce phonetic elements that have not yet been taught to him. Above all, give him the techniques he needs for observing and learning the phonetic variations in our language without forcing his rate of learning or leading him into unnecessary errors and confusions.

ANALYSIS OF PHONETIC ELEMENTS IN THE SPELLING VOCABULARY

How, then, does the spoken word relate to the written word in our language? How can the transition from the spoken to the written word be made most effectively? A careful analysis of the phonetic elements appearing in an elementary-school spelling vocabulary suggests answers to these important questions. One of the writers carried out an investigation to determine the extent to which each speech sound in the words comprising the spelling vocabulary of the elementary-school child is represented consistently in writing by a *specific* letter

or combination of letters. A rather accurate measure of the spelling consistency of speech sounds was obtained by relating the number of different spellings of a given speech sound to the frequency with which each of those different spellings occurs.

For example, the study shows that the speech sound represented by the *e* in the word *pet* has seven different spellings. The long *e* as in the word *he*, on the other hand, has fifteen different spellings. Thus, judged by the different spellings of each speech sound, the short *e* has the higher spelling consistency. The spelling consistency of the short *e* sound as compared with the long *e* sound is further increased when we observe that, of the seven letter representations of the short *e* sound, one (*e* as in *pet*) occurs 89 per cent of the time, and the next most frequent spelling (*ea* as in *head*) only 8 per cent. The long *e* sound is represented by *ea* 30 per cent of the time; by *ee*, 28 per cent; by *e*, 19 per cent; by *ie*, 4 per cent; and so on. Both the limited number of spellings of the short *e* sound and the relative frequency of occurrence of those spellings give the short *e* sound a much higher rating in spelling consistency than the long *e* sound. By making this sort of comparison among all the speech sounds of our language and possibly using an index number that would indicate the spelling consistency of each speech sound, we should be able to observe clearly the extent to which the spellings of individual English words adhere to, or depart from, the alphabetic principle.

The study referred to was undertaken on the assumption that the teaching of English spelling could be simplified by organizing instructional materials in such a way as to bring to light the alphabetic nature of the English language. The further assumption was made that such grading of materials is not only possible but desirable.

The three-thousand word spelling vocabulary used in this analysis was prepared in a previous research study.¹ The investigators undertaking the previous study selected words of the highest frequency in the writing, reading, and speaking of adults and children and those words appearing most frequently in widely used spelling textbooks. It is believed that this list represents the spelling words most common in children's usage and those most often taught in the first eight grades.

The phonetic unit used for the analysis is the smallest unit of representation used in alphabetic writing—the irreducible, meaningful speech sound, or as the linguist terms it, a “phoneme.” *Pin*, for example, consists of three such phonemes, which are represented by the three letters, *p*, *i*, and *n*. Linguists have identified thirty-two phonemes and eight compound phonemes (as the diphthong *uy* in *buy*). Secondary phonemes are a matter of stress or lack of stress and were not considered in this analysis except as

¹ J. H. Newlon, P. R. Hanna, and Jean S. Hanna, *The Day-by-Day Speller*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1942.

they actually change the phonic value of the phoneme.

The *Thorndike Century Senior Dictionary*² was used as the authority for pronunciation. Here the preferred pronunciation given for each word may be termed "standard English," that is, the pronunciation which is most prevalent among native-born, educated citizens of the United States.

Each word in the vocabulary analyzed was broken into its component speech sounds. Using index cards, each word was divided into syllables and each syllable into the phonemes comprising it—one card for each speech sound in the word. These phonemes were then filed alphabetically under their appropriate index guides according to sound and spelling, as well as position in the syllable. Tabulation sheets were compiled for each phoneme contained in the vocabulary. Each phoneme, or special group of phonemes, was represented by a separate tabulation sheet which listed all the words in the vocabulary containing this phoneme. Headings were set up for each spelling of this phoneme, and each heading was divided into the positions in which these sounds occurred in the syllable. The words were arranged in alphabetical order under each heading, and the headings were arranged in descending order on the basis of frequency of occurrence of each spelling of this sound. From these tabulations it was possible to deter-

mine (1) the number of different letter representations (spellings) of each phoneme and (2) the frequency of occurrence of each of the different spellings of each phoneme.

The study likewise described as "regular" or "irregular" the spelling of the different speech sounds, or phonemes. The letter or combination of letters most frequently used to represent a phoneme is called the regular spelling. The less frequently used spellings of the phoneme are called the irregular spellings. A third finding of the study, then, is the per cent of phonemes in the three thousand words spelled by the regular spelling and the per cent by the irregular.

Using the data contained in the tabulation sheets, tables were set up in such a way as to make possible a visual analysis of the word list and of the sounds comprising these words. In so doing, it was possible to determine the probable areas of greatest difficulty in relation to the spelling of these speech sounds.

FINDINGS OF THE ANALYSIS

Insofar as the vocabulary used in this study is representative of the most frequently and widely used words of the written work of the elementary-school child, and insofar as the pronunciation used in this analysis is representative of his speech habits, the following conclusions may be drawn:

Approximately four-fifths of the phonemes contained in the words comprising the spelling vocabulary of the elementary-school child are represented by a regular spelling.

² E. L. Thorndike, *Thorndike Century Senior Dictionary*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1941.

Nearly three-fourths of the vowel phonemes are spelled by their regular letter representations from about 57 per cent to about 99 per cent of the times they occur.

The vowel phonemes which have the lowest relative spelling consistency and which would logically create the most frequent spelling errors relating to vowel sounds are (1) the unstressed vowel sound *ə* (as the first sound in *about*), (2) the long *e* sound (as in *he*), (3) the sound *u* (as in *book*), (4) the sound *ü* (as in *food*), (5) the *r* vowel sound *ēr* (as in *verb*), (6) the *ō* (or *aw*) sound (as in *all*), and (7) the *y* sound (as in *onion*). (The diacritical marks are those used in the *Thorndike Century Senior Dictionary*.)

The single consonant phonemes have the highest spelling consistency. They are represented by their regular spellings about nine-tenths of the times they occur. The phonemes *b*, *d*, *g* (hard), *h*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *p*, *r*, *t* are either spelled only by the single letter representing the sound or by the doubled letter representing the sound. The doubled consonant represents less than 1 per cent of the frequency of occurrence in each of the instances cited.

The consonant phonemes *j* (as in *joy*) and *z* (as in *has*) would seem to create the most serious spelling difficulties relating to single consonants. The regular spelling of the *j* phoneme is with the letter *g* (soft). The same letter is also regularly used to represent the *g* phoneme in *get*. The regular spelling of the *z* phoneme is with the letter *s*, which is also regularly used to represent the *s* phoneme in *sat*.

About 82 per cent of the consonant blends and speech consonants have only one spelling. Of these, only two, *st* and *ch*, have a higher frequency of occurrence than the single-consonant phoneme with the lowest frequency of occurrence.

The suffixes *-al* (as in *able*) and *-en* (as in *lemon*) are the most irregular of the suffixes in their spellings and should constitute the most difficult problems in the correct spelling of suffixes.

In terms of total frequency of occurrence, final blends constitute a relatively small part of the elementary-school child's spelling. The nature of the vocabulary used in this study, however, does not justify making specific interpretations regarding suffixes and final blends.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE CLASSROOM

It is hoped that this analysis has made a first step toward breaking down certain well-established assumptions which have governed spelling instruction in the past half-century. The data indicate that careful organization of instructional materials would make it unnecessary for the child to study each and every word in spelling as an individual problem. Materials properly graded would present, in the early years of instruction, primarily those words in which the phonemes have a high degree of spelling consistency, in order to develop accurate responses to those speech sounds which are of relatively high spelling reliability. This grading of instructional materials would further present, in the later periods of instruction, irregular spellings in groups according to their deviations from the alphabetic principles of the English language.

What is the best method of teaching the child to express in written form the sounds he hears and speaks in his oral communication? Probably, most teachers use the simple method of requiring the child to write a word *x* times, or until he supposedly masters it. This is the repetitive, manual method wherein one depends on manual repetition, with some visual assist-

ance, to master certain combinations of symbols used for each word studied. There is no evidence to indicate that the average child retains for very long the spelling of words learned in this fashion. Moreover, in the time allotted for spelling, it is impossible to teach all the words a child will need to know if he is to engage in only limited written communication. Words learned in splendid isolation are likely to remain in isolation with no relation to words of similar sound and construction. We are reasonably certain, furthermore, that words cannot actually be taught in splendid isolation. As stated earlier, children should learn early the techniques which will enable them to proceed successfully in making letter-sound associations.

While the spell-down has some use as a playful motivating device and makes some contribution as a means of training the ear in the correct hearing of sounds, its value as an instrument for mastery of the written word is doubtful. *Spelling is definitely a writing problem.* The only reason for learning to spell is the necessity for correctly transmitting our ideas on paper. And we cannot do this without a sure knowledge of the selection and the sequential placement of the symbols used to write the sounds uttered.

What about the integration of spelling with other subjects? Integration—in the sense that spelling practice may emerge from lessons in social studies, literature, and science—is a very essential means of helping to motivate the learning, to build meaning, and to

make practical use of spelling. There is hardly any better way to direct a child's attention to the importance of proficiency in spelling than that of giving attention to, and practice in, accuracy in all his written work.

The subject-matter teachers have a serious responsibility in the business of checking spelling. However, spelling also needs to be taught separately in definite work sessions. We must not allow spelling to "go by the board" in the sense of being casual or incidental; for proficiency in spelling is basic to success in all subjects where ideas must be expressed through writing.

Some teachers prefer to offer spelling as a part of the reading program. This practice does not seem to be satisfactory because the child learns to read, not by mastering the individual syllables in a word, but by combining the sense of the context with only as many phonic clues—beginning sounds; consonant plus vowel sounds; the sounds of one or more syllables; and, if necessary, the sounds of common prefixes, suffixes, and endings—as may be needed to identify the written form of a word with its spoken form and meaning. Furthermore, the reading process is actually the direct reverse of the spelling process. In reading we move from the written form of a word, to its spoken form, to its meaning. In spelling we start with the meaning and move to the word in our oral language which will express the meaning, and thence to the written symbol representing that word. Fast readers are able to take in several words at a

glance. Undoubtedly, the experience with the printed forms of words which children get in their reading contributes to the ease with which they learn to spell those particular words. But we should not retard the reading development of the child by having him stop, for the sake of spelling mastery, to dissect each word in the reading lesson; nor, on the other hand, dare we allow the child to develop careless habits of spelling because he is acquiring speed and understanding in the reading lesson. It seems, therefore, that if we are to improve children's ability to spell accurately, if we are to stress the development of genuine spelling power rather than the ability to spell a particular list of words, we must set aside a definite period of the day devoted entirely to the business of translating sounds into written symbols.

This brings us to the question of "how many and how soon." Our first job in teaching children to spell is to make certain that they can hear the sounds of the words they are to spell. Auditory training is called for. The first words introduced should be those which the child needs in his written expression. Most of these will be relatively simple words which can be used to illustrate the function of the beginning consonant sounds (such as *ten*; *sit*, *put*) and ending single consonant sounds (such as *man*, *big*, *rub*). From there we might proceed to the introduction of simple words that employ the beginning and/or ending double-consonant sounds (such as *this*, *stop*, *plant*, *bring*). By selecting from the

child's spoken vocabulary simple words that begin or end with the same sound, and by helping him note that we use the same symbol to write this sound, we aid the child to arrive inductively at a generalization about translating the sound into a symbol.

When the written symbols representing the consonant sounds have been thoroughly mastered, introduce the vowel symbols used to write the sounds heard in simple words (such as *can*, *set*, *got*, *up*). When these so-called "short-vowel" symbols have been mastered in as many simple words as are necessary to establish a pattern inductively, proceed to the study of symbols which represent the so-called "long-vowel" sounds in words (such as *make*, *became*, *mile*, *go*, *use*). The introduction of variant or irregular spellings of sounds (such as *ai* in *laid*, *ay* in *may*, and *ei* in *weight* for the long *a* sound, and *ow* in *own*, *oa* in *oak* for the long *o* sound) should probably be determined by their frequency of occurrence or relative spelling consistency. Care must be taken to avoid giving the child the impression that the "right" or only way to spell speech sounds is the regular spelling. Our effort throughout must be to give him a sense of word patterns—a feeling for both the consistencies and the inconsistencies in the phonetic structure of our language.

It is obvious that phonetic considerations should not be permitted to distort or to throw out of balance the word list used in the teaching of spelling. Words should be introduced,

grade by grade, as nearly as possible in the order in which the child has need for them in his writing. In any grade the teaching of the relations of sounds and letters must grow out of the word list for that grade. Only those principles which we know the child can immediately put into practice in his written work in other school subjects should be taught and only as many principles in any particular grade as he can reasonably be expected to assimilate without confusion. Principles rather than individual words should be emphasized, since children will undoubtedly learn most of the rare spelling variants by observation and experience far better than by direct teaching. Materials so graded would present, in the early years of instruction, primarily words with a high degree of spelling consistency so as to develop in the child an accurate response to those speech sounds which have the greatest spelling reliability. If the child is taught, beginning with the simplest of sound-symbol patterns, to relate sound and written symbol, he will soon be able to arrive inductively at the spelling of most words that he can pronounce. This ability to transfer from one word to another the knowledge of phonic patterns which are similar is what we call "spelling power." The achievement of a measure of spelling power should be the aim of every pupil; memory feats should be confined to those words or syllables that belong in no phonic group.

SUMMARY

The problem of teaching children to spell becomes, therefore, a question of adopting certain procedures based upon the assumption that the child has already acquired a large speaking vocabulary and an adequate reading vocabulary. In summary, the following procedures have been suggested.

1. Some time must be set aside during the school day for a concentrated attack on the business of learning to translate sounds into written symbols.

2. Spelling must be integrated with other subjects in the curriculum in order that there may be an emphasis on meaning and correct usage, and a practical application of the proficiency acquired during the regular spelling period.

3. There are definite groups of words and syllables in the English language which belong in certain phonic categories. The child should learn such group patterns inductively. He should eventually develop a sense of the probable letter or letters to be used to represent the speech sounds as they occur in words belonging to such group patterns.

4. The beginner must proceed slowly from the simple phonic pattern used to write simple words to those groups of words which are complex in phonic structure.

5. The relatively few English words or parts of words which follow a rarely occurring phonic pattern (the irregulars) must be individually memorized.

MEASURING THE MAP-READING ABILITY OF SIXTH-GRADE CHILDREN

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HOW CAN I TELL which way a river flows?" "How can I tell the important seaports?" "How do you find latitude on a map?" "Which way is north?" Hearing such questions over and over again from boys and girls in Grade VI, the writer became interested in making a survey of the map-reading ability of children.

PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY

The plan was to use a standardized test to measure the map-reading ability of sixth-grade children, but investigation of available tests led to the conclusion that no test suitable for the purpose had been published. It was necessary, therefore, to construct a test that would meet the objectives of this survey. The first step was to compile a list of map-reading skills that are taught in the elementary schools. After careful study of the literature and scrutiny of numerous geography workbooks and teacher-aid suggestions, the following list of skills and of knowledge involved in the development of the skills was made up.

MAP-READING SKILLS AND KNOWLEDGE TESTED

- A. Ability to read a key or legend to find:
 1. Chief seaports
 2. Capital of country
 3. Capital of state
 4. Capital of state and also chief seaport
 - a) A dot is used for city; the dot and not the name gives the exact location.
 5. Navigable rivers
 6. Mountainous areas
 7. Plateaus
 8. Lowland areas
 9. Swamps
 10. Products raised
 11. Railroads
 12. Scale of miles
 - a) To tell the distance two cities are from each other
 - b) To name another city so many miles away from a given city
 13. Rainfall and population
 - a) To be able to read a key and interpret the information on rainfall maps and population maps
 14. Minerals
- B. Ability to use knowledge of the globe in recognizing distortions in areas and shapes shown on flat maps.
 1. Ability to read distance and direction on a globe
 2. Ability to detect, by comparison with

- a globe, distortions in a Mercator projection
- 3. Ability to detect, by comparison with a globe, general kinds of distortions in a polar equal-area projection
- 4. Ability to detect, by comparison with a globe, general kinds of distortion in any given map projection

C. General skills

1. Longitude and latitude on all types of projections previously mentioned
 - a) To give the longitude and latitude of a city
 - b) To tell name of city from a given longitude and latitude
 - c) To give longitude and latitude of places on sections of maps
2. Information about rivers
 - a) To recognize a delta, junction, and tributary
 - b) To tell the direction in which river flows
 - c) To tell the location of a city in relation to a river
 - d) To recognize the source and mouth of a river
3. Zones
 - a) To tell in what zone a continent lies
 - b) To tell the general climate because of the zone in which the continent lies
 - c) To recognize the location of the tropics
 - d) To name the geographical circles
4. Coast line
 - a) To recognize irregular and regular coast lines
 - b) To recognize a protected harbor from one that is not protected
 - c) To find a city located on a sea-coast
5. Continents
 - a) To recognize the six continents by their shapes
 - b) To give the name and the location of the three largest oceans surrounding these continents

- c) To select largest states by studying boundary lines on continents
 - d) To select a city located on a peninsula
 - e) To recognize a lake within a continent
 - f) To select a city that is a railroad center
6. Directions
 - a) To give directions on a globe
 - b) To give directions on a make-believe road map
 - c) To give directions on a Mercator projection and on a polar map, on both world maps and sections of maps
 - d) To use meridians and parallels as directional lines on globes and maps
 - e) To follow directions on a map on long and complicated journeys
 - f) To read directions from simple maps of areas not known

Search among textbook and workbook maps used by children, as well as inexpensive desk-size maps, failed to reveal any that met the requirements of this study. Consequently, it was necessary to construct maps that would provide opportunity to test the skills. These skills were tested in three parts so that it was not necessary to give the test at one sitting. The tests were administered in Syracuse in schools which included children from all segments of the population. Nearly all socioeconomic levels were represented, so that the children's backgrounds would not interfere with interpretation of the results.

There was no varying degree of difficulty from one part of the test to another. However, within each part, questions ranged from easy to difficult.

According to an item analysis for Test 1, fifty-four items out of fifty-nine fell within the range of useful discrimination and difficulty. One item was low in discriminating value. According to the item analysis on Test 2, forty-eight out of fifty-seven items fell within the range of useful discrimination and difficulty. Seven items were low or negative in discriminating value. On Test 3, thirty-three out of thirty-four items fell within the range of useful discrimination and difficulty. No items were either too low or negative in discriminating value. The validity of the test was considered satisfactory by Robert C. Pace, of the Division of Tests and Measurements at Syracuse University.

RESULTS OF STUDY

Table 1 indicates the per cent of correct answers of sixth-grade children on items dealing with specific map skills. These per cents are based on one hundred papers. No study of map-reading ability was available by which to establish norms for each skill. The only means of judging whether a per cent for a particular skill was high or low was the examiner's own experience and knowledge and the information found in her review of the literature.

Ability to read key or legend.—Ability to apply the information given in the map legend is essential to the proper understanding of maps. The symbols used in a legend are so varied that it is not possible to test pupils' knowledge of all of them. The test

described here included the symbols used most frequently by sixth-grade children.

The fact that 62 per cent of the answers involving the use of the scale of miles were correct indicated a certain degree of familiarity with the scale and its purpose but also showed an inability to use it with accuracy. It was noted by the examiners that almost all the pupils obtained their answers through inspection with the eye alone; that few used their fingers, pencil, or the system of laying off the scale on a piece of paper and applying it to the map. With increased practice and meaningful application of the accurate use of the scale throughout the school year, children should be able to employ this skill effectively.

Shading or dotting is often used on population, rainfall, and vegetation maps found in textbooks, atlases, newspapers, and magazines. One question on the test involved an area with no dots, with a key reading that a single dot represented 10,000 people. Only 45 per cent of the children were able to answer the question correctly. This result reveals either that children have not been thoroughly taught the meaning of a white area on maps of this type or that more attention has been given to the heavily shaded or dotted areas and not enough directed study to the sparsely populated areas.

The results on the test of the map symbols that are taught in earlier grades revealed that sixth-grade children have a good command of their use. On maps that depicted only a

TABLE 1

PER CENT OF CORRECT ANSWERS OF 100 SIXTH-GRADE PUPILS
ON TEST ITEMS DEALING WITH SPECIFIC MAP SKILLS

SKILL AND KNOWLEDGE TESTED	PER CENT OF CORRECT ANSWERS		SKILL AND KNOWLEDGE TESTED	PER CENT OF CORRECT ANSWERS	
	On Single Items	Median on Group of Items Testing Same Skill		On Single Items	Median on Group of Items Testing Same Skill
A. Reading key or legend to find:			C. Using general skills— <i>continued</i> :		
Chief seaports.....	52		Recognizing junction of rivers.....	86	
Capital of country.....	83		Recognizing zones in which continents lie.....		63
Capital of state and seaport.....	46		Telling general climate of zone.....		77
Navigable river.....	65		Recognizing location of tropics.....		61
Direction in which river flows.....	49		Knowing meaning of word "arid".....	53	
Plateaus, mountains, and lowland areas.....		70	Naming geographical circles.....		88
Desert areas.....	89		Recognizing regular and irregular coast lines.....		68
Swamps.....	77		Recognizing a protected harbor.....	46	
Minerals.....	77		Recognizing the continents by their shapes.....		67
Products.....	69		Naming and locating the largest oceans.....		77
Railroads.....	75		Recognizing boundary lines of states.....	66	
Population.....		64	Selecting a city located on a peninsula.....	66	
Scale of miles.....		62	Selecting a city located on a seacoast.....	75	
Rainfall.....		73	Naming a continent on a make-believe map.....	94	
B. Using knowledge of globe:			Locating lakes.....	97	
Reading distance and direction.....		84	Locating railroad center.....	79	
Detecting distortion in a Mercator projection.....		62	Giving directions on a make-believe road map.....		68
Detecting distortion in a polar equal-area projection.....		71	Giving directions on a polar equal-area projection.....		42
Detecting general kinds of distortions in any projection.....		69	Using meridians and parallels as directional lines on a globe.....		57
C. Using General skills:			Following directions on a map on long and complicated journey.....		62
Giving longitude and latitude of a city or a known area.....	66		Giving directions on partial map, globular projected.....		26
Telling name of a city from a given longitude and latitude.....	60		Giving general directions.....		58
Giving longitude and latitude of places on sectional maps of unknown area.....		47			
Telling location of a city in relation to a river.....		54			
Recognizing tributaries to rivers.....	56				
Recognizing delta of river.....	61				
Recognizing source and mouth of river.....	61				

few items and symbols, pupils were able to study the information given with excellent results.

A symbol is of no value to a child unless its meaning is clear in his mind. A teacher should ascertain the ability of his class to use the symbols taught in previous grades and should provide meaningful remedial instruction for any weaknesses that are discovered. There should be frequent comparisons between pictures of the geographical feature, or the true-life scene, and its symbol on the map.

Using knowledge of the globe to recognize distortions in flat maps.—

The results on tests of ability to recognize distortions in map projections readily showed that children have greater knowledge about the globe than about maps of any other type. The study of the globe is started in the early elementary-school grades, and continuous reference to it is made through the later grades. Recent emphasis on global geography has shown teachers the need of an awareness of the functions of a globe as an instructional tool. Although children are not introduced to the exact meaning of map projections and distortions until they reach Grade VI, the test results indicated that children possess a good knowledge of this skill in comparison with its difficulty.

Finding latitude and longitude.—Since locating given points on a map according to their latitude and longitude is a new skill for sixth-grade children, the per cents indicate the pu-

pils' basic knowledge of this skill. However, an investigation of the answers to separate test questions concerning longitude and latitude revealed a general weakness in using this skill accurately. Furthermore, the majority of the children were able to give the degrees of latitude and of longitude but were not able to tell with accuracy whether the place was north or south latitude or east and west longitude.

The writer believes that pupils have not been given a thorough understanding of the location of zero degrees latitude and longitude or the direction in which map-makers number parallels and meridians. With meaningful teaching and use of this skill, children will be able to tell readily whether a place is east or west longitude or north or south latitude by the direction in which the degrees increase. Then with constant reference to latitude and longitude of areas being studied throughout the year, this skill will have continued value. Concrete examples could be cited to show the value of accuracy, for example, the results of inaccuracy to a ship or airplane at sea.

Reading directions.—Four to twelve questions tested skills in which sixth-grade children apply geographic directions. In general, the pupils did well with questions concerning directions on a map if north was toward the top of the map, east to the right, south toward the bottom, and west to the left. According to test results, sixth-grade children recognize the

cardinal points if a known area is concerned.

However, results depend somewhat on the way the question is asked. Suppose that Point *X* is directly south of Point *Y*. If the question is asked, "What point is directly south of *Y*?" the majority of pupils give the right answer. If the question is, "What is the direction from *Y* to *X*?" the pupils cannot give this information accurately. Many will give the reverse of the true direction, even though they know perfectly well which way north, east, south, and west are on the map. The main reason for this confusion seems to be that throughout the grades children have had more experience in giving directions from the first type of question than from the latter.

On maps or partial maps where meridians do not run vertically or on polar equal-area projected maps, the ability to state directions correctly is exceptionally weak. Questions based on this type of map brought the poorest responses of all the questions. The median per cent of correct responses on the group of items based on a map showing the North Pole at the center was only 42. To most children north is always "up." They do not understand that, in a map with the North Pole at the center, north is toward the center of the map and south is outward in any direction from the center.

The present interest in aviation, with flights to both North and South Poles, has caused frequent printing in

newspapers of maps of regions about the poles and maps of world air routes. It seems necessary, therefore, that pupils should acquire some facility in reading directions on such maps.

In the case of the group of questions based on a map on which meridians were curved lines, the median per cent of correct responses was 57. The examiner feels that this weakness is caused by lack of practice in giving directions on a globe and by the constant use of only Mercator projected maps.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

One great weakness revealed by this study is that children do not have enough accurate knowledge in map-reading skills. The test showed a high per cent of achievement on the skills which are taught in early elementary-school grades and are also used and referred to throughout the later grades. Habitual practice with map skills evidently increases the ability to read and utilize maps efficiently.

Such skills as using a key to read the scale of miles, giving geographic directions on maps of various projections, giving longitude and latitude, using meridians and parallels to tell directions—all taught in the later grades—received comparatively low per cents of correct answers. This fact does not prove that these skills have not been well taught. The examiner is inclined to believe that these skills may have been taught adequately but that, when a teacher was carrying on a unit concerning a certain country,

map skills were forgotten. The fact that the retention span of some children is longer than that of others would also affect the results. Moreover, children are not asked to give the longitude and latitude of a city or region and to compare the customs, types of homes, and occupations of the inhabitants with those of a city or region in the same latitude.

The per cents of correct responses to a single item ranged from 97 to 9. These figures disclose a wide range in the ability of sixth-grade children to read maps. The average per cent of correct responses on the entire test for sixth-grade children in Syracuse was

64. Finding no reports of similar studies in other cities, the examiner had no standards for comparison of this average. However, she feels that the per cent attained here is a good score for sixth-grade children since many of the skills measured by the test are not introduced until the sixth-grade level and the study shows that the skills taught in lower grades received higher per cents of correct responses. Apparently, these skills become more useful and meaningful to children as they progress. Undoubtedly, increased attention to new map skills met in the later grades will show equally good results.

ATTITUDES TOWARD WAR AS EXPRESSED BY AMISH AND NON-AMISH CHILDREN: A FOLLOW-UP STUDY

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DURING World War II, in the fall of 1943, the writer made a study of the attitudes toward war of 294 seventh- and eighth-grade children attending 14 rural and small-town schools in northeastern Indiana.¹ Of these children, 134 were members of the Amish religious sect. Members of this sect are, by faith, conscientious objectors to war. Attitudes were measured by asking the children to check statements on the Peterson Attitude toward War scale.² It was found that non-Amish children were more favorable toward war than were Amish children, the difference being statistically significant for boys. A similar study

was made in April, 1952, in order to compare the attitudes of children in times of "peace" with the attitudes of children in times of war.

SUBJECTS AND PROCEDURE

It would have been interesting to administer the Attitude toward War scale to the present young adults who were seventh- and eighth-grade pupils in the previous study. However, as this procedure was not feasible, an attempt was made to secure as subjects children now attending the same schools used in the previous study. This was possible in some cases, but in others there had been a change in teachers and the co-operation of the new teacher was not obtained. Contact was made with some additional but similar rural and small-town schools, and the co-operation of the teachers secured.

In the present study the attitudes of 443 seventh- and eighth-grade children were measured. Of this number, 150 belonged to the Amish sect and 293 were non-Amish. Of the Amish children, 71 were boys and 79 were girls. Of the non-Amish children, 163

¹ T. L. Engle, "Attitudes toward War as Expressed by Amish and non-Amish Children," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXV (April, 1944), 211-19.

² Ruth C. Peterson, Scales for the Measurement of Social Attitudes: No. 34, Attitude toward War, Form A. Edited by Louis Leon Thurstone. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931.

In order to make this comparative study, it was desired to administer the same scale that was used in the previous study. The scale is now out of print, but the University of Chicago Press granted permission for the writer to reproduce enough copies for use in the present research.

were boys and 130 were girls. The children were attending 15 schools.

The scales were administered by the teachers in their regular classrooms. The Attitude toward War scale was not developed for use with children. Teachers were instructed that a dic-

TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND BY RELIGIOUS SECT OF SCORES ON ATTITUDE TOWARD WAR SCALE ADMINISTERED IN 1952 AND 1943

SEX AND DATE	MEAN SCORE		DIFFERENCE IN MEAN SCORES	SIGNIFICANCE RATIO
	Amish	Non-Amish		
Boys:				
1952.....	4.11	3.97	0.14	0.88
1943.....	3.83	4.30	0.47	2.74
Difference.....	0.28	0.33
Significance ratio.....	1.55	2.20
Girls:				
1952.....	4.16	4.23	0.07	0.37
1943.....	3.92	4.04	0.12	0.64
Difference.....	0.24	0.19
Significance ratio.....	1.14	1.12
Both:				
1952.....	4.14	4.28	0.14	1.17
1943.....	3.87	4.18	0.31	2.44
Difference.....	0.27	0.10
Significance ratio.....	1.93	0.91

tionary definition of a word could be read in case a child did not know the meaning of a word but that the wording of the scale could not be changed in any case. Also, teachers were instructed to impress upon the children the facts that the scale was not an examination, that there were no right

and wrong answers, and that school marks would in no way be based on their answers. Teachers were permitted to tell the children that a teacher in a university was interested in how seventh- and eighth-grade boys and girls felt about war and that their papers would be sent to him. Pupils were urged to check the statements promptly and to hand in their papers as soon as completed. There was to be no exchange of ideas before the papers were handed in.

For those not familiar with the measuring instrument, it should be said that the scale consists of twenty statements. The subject is instructed to put a check mark in front of each statement with which he agrees, to put a cross in front of each statement with which he disagrees, and to place a question mark in front of a statement in case he cannot decide. The scoring is so done that the lower the score, the more unfavorable toward war is the attitude.

SCORES ON THE ATTITUDE SCALE

Comparative data for Amish and non-Amish children are presented in Table 1. Two mean scores are given in each case: the score in the present study and the mean score for the comparable group as obtained eight and one-half years ago, during World War II.

In connection with the present study, it is of interest to note that Amish boys are more favorable toward war than are non-Amish boys, although the difference is not statistical-

ly significant. In the previous study non-Amish boys were more favorable toward war than were Amish boys, and the significance ratio was 2.74.

At the present time non-Amish girls are slightly more favorable toward war than are Amish girls, but the difference is not significant. In the previous study, also, non-Amish girls were slightly more favorable toward war than were Amish girls, but the significance ratio at that time was only 0.64.

At the present time the total non-Amish children are somewhat more favorable toward war than are the total Amish children, but the difference is not significant. In the previous study the significance ratio for the difference between total non-Amish and total Amish was 2.44.

In the previous study non-Amish boys (mean score 4.30) were more favorable toward war than were non-Amish girls (4.04). The significance ratio was 1.49. At present non-Amish girls (4.23) are more favorable toward war than are non-Amish boys (3.97). The significance ratio is 1.86.

In the previous study Amish girls (3.92) were slightly more favorable toward war than were Amish boys (3.83), but the significance ratio was only 0.50. At present, Amish girls are again slightly more favorable toward war than are Amish boys, but the significance ratio is only 0.24.

The difference between the present (4.11) and previous (3.83) mean scores for Amish boys is not significant, the ratio being 1.55, but present scores do

suggest a more favorable attitude toward war. The ratio for the difference between present (3.97) and previous (4.30) mean scores for non-Amish boys is 2.20, and it suggests a less favorable attitude toward war.

The difference between present (4.16) and previous (3.92) mean scores for Amish girls is not significant, the ratio being 1.14. The ratio for the difference between present (4.23) and previous (4.04) mean scores for non-Amish girls is 1.12. Although neither of these differences for girls is statistically significant, they do suggest a more favorable attitude toward war at the present time.

The mean score for total Amish children at the present time (4.14) suggests a more favorable attitude than the mean score for total Amish children in the previous study (3.87). The significance ratio is 1.93. However, this difference is greater than the difference between total non-Amish children at the present time (4.28) and total non-Amish children in the previous study (4.18), that significance ratio being only 0.91.

As in the previous study, all present mean scores fall within the classification "Moderately opposed to war," as that classification was determined for adults during the period between World War I and World War II.

STATEMENTS DIFFERENTIATING AMISH AND NON-AMISH CHILDREN

In addition to the comparison of scores indicated above, a detailed

study was made of responses to the various statements on the scale.

It was found that, for four statements, differences in responses of total Amish and total non-Amish children

were of statistical significance. Table 2 shows that the statement, "I never think about war, and it doesn't interest me," was agreed to by 34.7 per cent of the Amish children but by only 14.7

TABLE 2

STATEMENTS DIFFERENTIATING BETWEEN AMISH AND NON-AMISH CHILDREN
ON ATTITUDE TOWARD WAR SCALE ADMINISTERED IN 1952 AND 1943

STATEMENT	PER CENT AGREEING		DIFFERENCE	SIGNIFICANCE RATIO
	Amish	Non-Amish		
I never think about war, and it doesn't interest me:				
1952—Boys and girls.....	34.7	14.7	20.0	4.55
1943—Boys and girls.....	28.4	18.1	10.3	2.07
Difference.....	6.3	3.4		
Significance ratio.....	1.15	0.92		
Under some conditions, war is necessary to maintain justice:				
1952—Boys and girls.....	57.3	72.0	14.7	3.06
1943—Boys and girls.....	53.7	71.4	17.7	3.16
Difference.....	3.6	0.6		
Significance ratio.....	0.61	0.14		
It is good judgment to sacrifice certain rights in order to prevent war:				
1952—Boys and girls.....	82.0	70.3	11.7	2.85
1943—Boys and girls.....	79.9	85.0	5.1	1.13
Difference.....	2.1	14.7		
Significance ratio.....	0.48	3.77		
The desirable results of war have not received the attention they deserve:				
1952—Boys and girls.....	40.7	53.9	13.2	2.83
1943—Boys and girls.....	38.1	35.0	3.1	0.54
Difference.....	2.6	18.9		
Significance ratio.....	0.46	3.94		
War brings out the best qualities in men:				
1952—Boys and girls.....	16.7	15.4	1.3	0.35
1943—Boys and girls.....	24.6	44.4	19.8	3.60
Difference.....	7.9	29.0		
Significance ratio.....	1.61	6.59		
Although war is terrible, it has some value:				
1952—Boys and girls.....	51.4	61.4	10.0	2.00
1943—Boys and girls.....	51.5	68.3	16.8	2.95
Difference.....	0.1	6.9		
Significance ratio.....	0.02	1.47		

per cent of the non-Amish children and that the significance ratio is 4.55. It is of interest to note that Amish people wear a distinctive garb, do not have radios in their homes, do not own automobiles, do not attend motion-picture theaters, and in other ways lead a life which is somewhat out of touch with the lives of their non-Amish neighbors. The other statements that produced significant differences were:

Under some conditions, war is necessary to maintain justice. (The responses to this statement also differentiated between Amish and non-Amish children in the previous study.)

It is good judgment to sacrifice certain rights in order to prevent war.

The desirable results of war have not received the attention they deserve.

There were two statements which showed significant differences between total Amish and total non-Amish children in the previous study but which did not do so in the 1952 study. The first of these statements is "War brings out the best qualities in men." The data show a significant change in the responses of the non-Amish children at the later date. The second statement is "Although war is terrible, it has some value." Again, fewer non-Amish children were inclined to agree with this statement in 1952 than the number who agreed in 1943.

STATEMENTS DIFFERENTIATING BETWEEN BOYS AND GIRLS

At present, one statement differentiates significantly between total boys (both Amish and non-Amish) and

total girls. "There is no conceivable justification for war" was agreed to by 55.6 per cent of the boys and by only 41.1 per cent of the girls, the significance ratio for the difference being 3.09.

In the previous study the statement which showed the greatest difference of response, although not significant, between total boys (39.2 per cent) and total girls (30.9 per cent) was "War brings out the best qualities in men." At present, only 19.2 per cent of the total boys and 12.0 per cent of the total girls agree with this statement. The significance ratio for the difference between present total boys and previous total boys is 4.26. The corresponding ratio for girls is 4.11.

STATEMENTS AGREED TO BY HIGHEST AND LOWEST PER CENTS OF CHILDREN

The per cents of Amish and of non-Amish children agreeing with each of the twenty statements on the scale were computed. Only those statements agreed to by 75 per cent or more of either or both groups at the present time or those agreed to by 25 per cent or fewer of either or both groups in 1952 will be mentioned here.

Table 3 shows that the following statements were agreed to by 75 per cent or more of the children both in 1952 and in 1943:

International disputes should be settled without war.

War is a ghastly mess.

It is good judgment to sacrifice certain rights in order to prevent war.

War has some benefits, but it's a big price to pay for them.

Table 3 shows that five statements were agreed to by 25 per cent or fewer of either group in 1952 and 1943:

- War is glorious.
- There can be no progress without war.
- War is the only way to right tremendous wrongs.
- I never think about war, and it doesn't interest me.
- War brings out the best qualities in men.

These five statements are the same ones which were agreed to by 25 per

cent or less of either or both groups in the previous study. None of the differences between the present and the previous studies was of significance, except the statement, "War brings out the best qualities in men," which has been discussed earlier.

There were two statements which were agreed to by 75 per cent or more of one or the other group in the previous study but which are not so classified at present. These are:

The evils of war are greater than any possible benefits.

TABLE 3
STATEMENTS AGREED TO BY 75 PER CENT OR MORE OR BY 25 PER CENT OR FEWER OF AMISH OR OF NON-AMISH CHILDREN ON ATTITUDE TOWARD WAR SCALE ADMINISTERED IN 1952 AND 1943

STATEMENT	AMISH	NON-AMISH
Per Cent Agreeing in 1952		
Agreed to by 75 per cent or more in 1952 and 1943:		
International disputes should be settled without war	90.7	92.2
War is a ghastly mess	90.0	89.8
It is good judgment to sacrifice certain rights in order to prevent war	82.0	70.3
War has some benefits, but it's a big price to pay for for them	74.0	83.3
Agreed to by fewer than 25 per cent in 1952 and 1943:		
War is glorious	1.3	1.7
There can be no progress without war	11.3	8.9
War is the only way to right tremendous wrongs	12.0	13.0
I never think about war, and it doesn't interest me	34.7	14.7
War brings out the best qualities in men	16.7	15.4
Per Cent Agreeing in 1943		
Agreed to by 75 per cent or more in 1943:		
*The evils of war are greater than any possible benefits	76.1	74.5
†Pacifists have the right attitude, but some pacifists go too far	63.3	75.0

* The per cents for this statement in 1952 were, respectively, 72.0 and 74.7.
† The per cents for this statement in 1952 were, respectively, 58.7 and 69.0.

Pacifists have the right attitude, but some pacifists go too far.

The differences between present and previous per cents are not statistically significant.

SUMMARY

During World War II the attitudes toward war of seventh- and eighth-grade children were measured. Some of the children belonged to the Amish religious sect, the members of which are conscientious objectors to war. Using similar groups of subjects, attitudes toward war were measured again in the spring of 1952.

Apparently, the propaganda concerning "police action" in Korea, the need for developing atomic weapons, the need for a large military force, and the like has resulted in giving children at least as favorable an attitude toward war in this time of "peace" as they had in time of war. Today, the differences in attitudes of Amish and non-Amish children are less marked than they were eight and a half years ago. Although differences are not statistically significant, all groups except non-Amish boys now show a somewhat more favorable attitude toward war than they did in the previous study. There is a tendency for girls to be somewhat more favorable toward war than are boys. However, all mean scores still fall within the classification "Moderately opposed to war."

Although mean scores do not differentiate between the attitudes of Amish and non-Amish children, a study of

responses to each of the statements on the attitude scale indicated some differences. Amish children are more likely to refuse to face the problems of war, as is indicated by the fact that a third of them say they never think about war and that it does not interest them. Both during and since the war they have been less inclined to believe that under some conditions war is necessary to maintain justice. They are somewhat less likely to think of war as having desirable results, and they are more inclined to believe that it is good judgment to sacrifice certain rights in order to prevent war.

One of the most interesting differences between the wartime and "peacetime" attitudes is the fact that today these children are much less inclined than they previously were to think that war brings out the best qualities in men. At the present time, boys are somewhat more likely than girls to believe that there is no conceivable justification for war.

Both during war and "peace," children have indicated that they believe international disputes should be settled without war and that it is good judgment to sacrifice certain rights in order to prevent war. They have thought that, whatever the benefits of war, it is a big price to pay for them and that war is a ghastly mess. They believe that progress can be made without war and that there are other ways than war to right tremendous wrongs. During neither war nor "peace" have children believed that war is glorious.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON PRESCHOOL AND PARENTAL EDUCATION

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THIS BIBLIOGRAPHY covers the period from December 1, 1951, to December 1, 1952. The following classes of books and articles have been excluded: (1) foreign-language publications, (2) textbooks and reviews, and (3) popular articles containing little new material.

TECHNICAL REFERENCES

86. ABERLE, DAVID F., and NAEGELE, KASPAR D. "Middle-Class Fathers' Occupational Role and Attitudes toward Children," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXII (April, 1952), 366-78. Twenty middle-class fathers, well educated and successful, were interviewed concerning their children, who ranged in age from infancy to thirteen years. Sons were expected to attend college and to obtain occupations equal to, or above, the present occupations of their fathers. The fathers wished their sons to develop such traits as masculinity, competitiveness, dependability, and stability, which they believed to be necessary for their sons' success as adults. The fathers were neither educationally nor occupationally ambitious for daughters and were vague about the traits needed for successful womanhood, but they deplored what they considered to be masculine behavior in girls.
87. AMES, LOUISE BATES. "The Sense of Self of Nursery School Children as Manifested by Their Verbal Behavior," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of*

Genetic Psychology, LXXXI (December, 1952), 192-232.

Verbal behavior judged to be indicative of a developing sense of self was recorded by a trained observer for 150 children, eighteen months to four years of age. Emerging developmental stages are described, with illustrations from the observational records.

88. AMES, LOUISE BATES; LEARNED, JANET; METEAUX, RUTH W.; and WALKER, RICHARD N. *Child Rorschach Responses: Developmental Trends from Two to Ten Years*. New York: Paul Hoeber, Inc., 1952. Pp. 310.

Classifies the Rorschach responses of 650 children of superior intelligence and socioeconomic status and compares them with the Gesell developmental schedules.

89. ANASTASI, ANNE, and D'ANGELO, RITA Y. "A Comparison of Negro and White Preschool Children in Language Development and Goodenough Draw-a-Man IQ," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXXXI (December, 1952), 147-65.

One hundred Negro and white children within six months of their fifth birthdays were the subjects of this study. They were from mixed and unmixed neighborhoods with respect to racial composition, and all were of lower socioeconomic status. A modification of the McCarthy technique was used as the measure of language development, and the Goodenough Draw-a-Man test was also given to each child. There were no racial differences in intelligence on the Goodenough test, but girls excelled in

all comparisons by a slight amount. Insignificant differences in language development favored the white children, with white girls superior to white boys, but Negro boys superior to Negro girls. This sex reversal was most marked in the groups from mixed neighborhoods.

90. BELL, JOHN ELDERKIN. "Perceptual Development and the Drawings of Children," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXII (April, 1952), 386-93.

The drawing of young children not only is indicative of perceptual development but encourages it. The child masters hand and mouth co-ordinations before he can draw with much control. The developmental stages in the drawing of normal children are sufficiently well defined, in spite of individual differences, to make comparison with the drawing of disturbed children meaningful. It is thus possible to estimate the period at which disruption of personality development has occurred and its severity.

91. DAVIS, NELL, and SCOLAR, FLORENCE I. "Calcium, Phosphorus, and Nitrogen of Nursery-School Lunches," *Child Development*, XXIII (June, 1952), 83-90.

Using the National Research Council's recommendations as the standard, analysis was made of the school lunches for a period of ten days of thirty-one nursery-school children. The calcium intake was sufficient for daily requirements, but phosphorus and nitrogen required supplementation from other meals.

92. FISCHER, ALFRED E. "Sibling Relationships with Special Reference to the Problems of the Second Born," *Journal of Pediatrics*, XL (February, 1952), 254-59.

The author studied cases from a large clinical practice in which the second-born child was emotionally disturbed. There were more boys than girls in the group. Most of these disturbed children were of the same sex as the older sibling and within three years of the older sibling's age. There is a detailed discussion of reasons for neglect of the second-born, of the resulting behavior

problems, and of possible means for prevention.

93. FISCHER, LISELOTTE. "Hospitalism in Six-Month-Old Infants," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXII (July, 1952), 522-33.

Children in an orphanage where good psychological and physical care is given were tested with the Cattell Infant Intelligence Scale at six months of age. Although children with physical defects were excluded from the analysis, the ratings of one-third of the children were below the normal range on the Cattell norms. Most of these children made higher scores at later ages and were placed for adoption. Item analysis showed that the children passed the six-month tests of social, sensory, and muscular development but failed those of grasping and manipulating objects. This was interpreted to mean that these children lacked interest in things and were either passive or socially demanding. Further study is required to determine why only one-third of the children in this environment were affected.

94. ISCH, MARIA JEFFRE. "Fantasied Mother-Child Interactions in Doll Play," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXXXI (December, 1952), 233-58.

Thirty-three children in the University of Iowa Preschool engaged in four sessions of doll play. They were presented with a mother doll, a child doll of the same sex as themselves, furniture, and walls arranged to represent a house. The experimenter maintained a high degree of interaction with the child. Mother-child interaction was observed also, using the Merrill technique. As inhibitions were released, aggressive play increased and there were shifts in the choice of objects of aggression from those which could not retaliate to those which could. The relation between aggression in doll play and in the mother-child interaction was positive but low, more aggression appearing in the former. The doll play of these children seemed to reflect both observed behavior and wish fulfillment.

95. ITKIN, WILLIAM. "Some Relationships between Intra-family Attitudes and Preparental Attitudes toward Children," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXXX (June, 1952), 221-52.

Parents of college students and the students themselves were given five Likert-type scales concerning their attitudes toward children and concerning the students' evaluation of their parents' child-rearing practices. There was a slight tendency for sons to reflect attitudes of their mothers more frequently than those of their fathers, while daughters reflected those of both parents equally often. There was only a slight relation between the students' reports on their parents' child-rearing practices and their own ideas about child management. It is concluded that intra-family attitudes have some effect on college students' attitudes concerning children but that many other factors are also involved.

96. KLATSKIN, ETHELYN HENRY. "Shifts in Child Care Practices in Three Social Classes under an Infant Care Program of Flexible Methodology," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXII (January, 1952), 52-61.

Interviews were held one year after mothers from three social classes had been given an educational program in connection with childbirth. The interviews covered child-rearing practices and the fathers' role in child care. As has been previously reported, the mothers of the upper social class were the most lenient in toilet training and in discipline, but there were no differences between classes in other child-care practices or in the fathers' roles. The author concludes that shifts occurred as a result of the educational program.

97. LU, YI-CHUANG. "Parental Role and Parent-Child Relationship," *Marriage and Family Living*, XIV (November, 1952), 294-97.

Information concerning childhood relationships with fathers and mothers and concerning parents' personalities was gathered

from about eleven hundred college-educated men and women. Each parent was assigned a dominance score on the basis of his or her ratings on these items: "Angers easily," "Stubborn," "Aggressive," and "Dominating." The scores of each pair of parents were compared, resulting in three groupings: "Mother-dominated," "Father-dominated," and "Equally mother-father-dominated" homes. Both sons and daughters reported conflict and lack of attachment for the dominant parent in homes where discipline and management were not shared equally by the parents. The author suggests that the dominance of one parent rather than the Oedipus complex may explain unhealthy family relationships.

98. MARTIN, WILLIAM E. "Identifying the Insecure Child: II. The Validity of Some Suggested Methods," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXXX (March, 1952), 25-34.

A modification of the Wolff test of insecurity, from which extraneous factors noted in an earlier study had been eliminated, was given to superior children from three to eight years of age. Teachers rated the children on the Pritchard-Ojemann Behavior Rating Scale and selected the three most secure and the three least secure children in each age group. The problem tendency score from the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman scale was also used. Although there were shifts attributed to the modifications and to sampling variations, the results were essentially the same as those of the previous study. Sixty-five per cent of the children were identified by the Wolff test as more or less insecure. Teachers' ratings all correlated positively with each other but showed either no relationship or a negative correlation with the Wolff test results.

99. MEREDITH, HOWARD V., and GOLDSTEIN, MARCUS S. "Studies on the Body Size of North American Children of Mexican Ancestry," *Child Development*, XXIII (June, 1952), 91-110.

Data on measurements by others and by the senior author are synthesized with some new data to give a more complete picture

of the growth of these children, from birth to seventeen years of age. The data on preschool children are less adequate than those for older children.

100. OSBORN, JOHN J., M.D.; DANCIS, JOSEPH, M.D.; and JULIA, JUAN F., M.D. "Studies of the Immunology of the Newborn Infant," *Journal of Pediatrics*, IX (June, 1952), 736-44.

Forty infants, varying in age from one week to six months, were studied. Infants can form antibodies from birth, and the ability improves rapidly during early life. Antitoxin improvement is especially rapid during the first two months for diphtheria and tetanus. The advisability of early immunization is related to the potency of the antigen to be used.

101. PEARLMAN, LYON N. "Early Immunization—Its Possible Influence on Canadian Mortality Figures," *American Journal of Diseases of Children*, LXXXIV (July, 1952), 11-16.

On the basis of analysis of statistics covering a period of ten years, the author concludes that immunization under four months of age will save only a few children who die of diphtheria but a more substantial number who die of pertussis. Some protagonists of early immunization overstate the benefits of methods now available. Better methods should be sought.

102. PURCELL, KENNETH. "Memory and Psychological Security," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVII (April, 1952, Supplement), 433-40.

College students were asked to recall their earliest memory, four other events occurring before they were six years old, and five events occurring in each of three later periods (preadolescence, adolescence, and adulthood). They also checked on a list the affective characteristics of each memory. Then they responded to the first twenty-five items of the Maslow security scale. Secure students checked twice as many pleasant affective characteristics of their memories as insecure students. This was

true for both childhood and adult memories. The tendency for the students' present status to condition the selection and interpretation of their memories supports Adler's theory. However, the first memory was no more closely related to the security score than was the tenth memory, throwing some doubt upon Adler's view with regard to the special significance of the earliest memory. Freud's theory of infantile amnesia and of the banal and meaningless character of the earliest memories because they are "screen" memories is not supported by this study, since early memories were as meaningful, as highly toned emotionally, and as closely related to security scores as were later memories.

103. SEWELL, WILLIAM H., and MUSSEN, PAUL H. "The Effects of Feeding, Weaning, and Scheduling Procedures on Childhood Adjustment and the Formation of Oral Symptoms," *Child Development*, XXIII (September, 1952), 185-91.

Breast or bottle feeding, demand or regulated feeding, and gradual or abrupt weaning were studied with reference to personality characteristics and oral symptoms in 162 rural-school children of five and six years of age. The mothers were interviewed concerning infant-feeding practices, oral symptoms, and other personality traits of their children; the California Test of Personality, Primary Form A, was administered to the children; and the Ford modification of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules was filled out by their teachers. Statistical analysis failed to reveal any relation between adjustment scores and infant-feeding practices.

104. SMITH, MADORAH E. "Childhood Memories Compared with Those of Adult Life," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXXX (June, 1952), 151-82.

Over a period of several months, a 62-year-old woman was asked to recall as many memories of succeeding periods of childhood as possible. These were compared with two diaries, one kept by her mother

and one by herself. Accurate dating of the memories was facilitated by reference to the many different places in which the family had lived. Comparisons were made with memories of siblings and those of several other persons. Suggestive findings are reported concerning differences related to sex, level of intelligence, and personality.

105. SMITH, MADORAH E. "A Comparison of Certain Personality Traits as Rated in the Same Individuals in Childhood and Fifty Years Later," *Child Development*, XXIII (September, 1952), 159-80.

A mother's journal concerning her six children made it possible to compare the ranks of the children in health; in intelligence, as evidenced by age at mastery of language and learning to read; and in thirty-five character traits, with similar ratings made fifty years later. Reversal of ranks occurred rather infrequently. On thirty of the thirty-five character traits, ranks were consistent from childhood to late maturity. There was a general tendency toward improvement in the traits over the years. In childhood, boys were punished most and improved most, those traits for which they were punished showing the greatest improvement. Adult hobbies and occupations were often mentioned as interests in early childhood.

106. SPRINGER, DORIS. "Development in Young Children of an Understanding of Time and the Clock," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXXX (March, 1952), 83-96.

Nursery-school children were asked to give the time of various of their activities, to tell the time shown on the clock, to set the clock, and to explain the operation of the hands. In addition, they drew clocks, and their remarks were recorded. The drawings have been analyzed and reported separately. Informal instruction results in a steady increase with age in the ability to tell time. Both successes and types of errors develop sequentially. Each stage of development is described.

107. TASCH, RUTH J. "The Role of the Father in the Family," *Journal of Ex-*

perimental Education, XX (June, 1952), 319-61.

Eighty-five middle-class fathers, living in Greater New York, were interviewed concerning their activities as fathers and their conceptions of fatherhood. Categorization of the data by several persons working independently yielded high per cents of agreement. These fathers reported taking part in the whole range of child-rearing activities, and reports of their activities were similar to reports of fathers' activities that have been supplied by children in other studies. Their reports of activities and their conceptions of fatherhood were for the most part consistent, although the latter were more ideal. They were more critical of the child-rearing practices of others than of their own. They did not apparently feel a need for education in child-rearing. Although these fathers were anxious that their sons exhibit masculine behavior, they were not conscious of their own roles in sex-typing. There was some evidence of hostility toward sons and some conflict between their roles as companions and providers. Most of the fathers appeared to love their children without reservation. The author concluded that these fathers did not need to be exhorted "to do" for their children but could use some education in "how to do" for them.

NONTECHNICAL REFERENCES¹

108. BAKWIN, R. M., and BAKWIN, H. "Adoption," *Journal of Pediatrics*, XL (January, 1952), 130-34.

A comprehensive discussion of modern adoption practices, good and poor motives for adopting a child, and the special pitfalls into which adoptive parents may fall.

109. BLACK, IRMA SIMONTON. "Everyday Problems of the Preschool Child," *Journal of Pediatrics*, XLI (August, 1952), 233-43.

Such problems as disturbance over going to nursery school, feeding problems, mas-

¹ See also Item 392 (Peller) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

turbation, timidity, aggression, jealousy, temper tantrums, negativism, and bad language are discussed in the light of modern educational practices and scientific thinking about children.

110. COLEMAN, LESTER L. "Science Says—Children Need Preparation for Tonsillectomy," *Child Study*, XXIX (Spring, 1952), 18-19, 42.

A doctor discusses the psychological shock to the young child of a hospital experience for which he has not been prepared and explains how emotional distress can be minimized through the co-operation of the child's doctor, his parents, and the hospital staff.

111. ENGLISH, O. SPURGEON, and FOSTER, CONSTANCE J. *Fathers Are Parents, Too: A Constructive Guide to Successful Fatherhood*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1951. Pp. 304.

The father's role in family life is described in psychoanalytic terms.

112. GARDNER, GEORGE E. "What about the Aggressive Child?" *The Child*, XVI (June-July, 1952), 146-49, 155.

Tells how a child may be helped to channel his aggressive impulses into constructive behavior, mentions the various forms that aggression may take, and lists those forms which require psychiatric attention.

113. GRUENBERG, SIDONIE, and KRECH, HILDA. *The Many Lives of Modern Woman*. New York: Doubleday & Co., 1952. Pp. 256.

A thought-provoking analysis of the many roles of modern women, with emphasis on the methods employed by those who have

succeeded in integrating their lives to include outside employment and love and security for their children at home.

114. HARPER, NANCY. "Instead of 'Blood and Thunder' Radio," *The Child*, XVII (November, 1952), 37-38.

Describes a radio program especially designed for the instruction and enjoyment of the preschool child, geared to short attention spans, and providing opportunities for active participation.

115. HODGSON, FLORENCE PITMAN. "How Glendie, the Invisible, Came to Our House," *Parents' Magazine*, XXVII (December, 1952), 42-43, 90-93, 96.

How a four-year-old boy's imaginary playmate helped him to face the death of a beloved grandmother and the family learned that they had misunderstood the child's emotional needs.

116. MCGRAW, MYRTLE B., and WESSELS, FLORENCE. "Don't Overprotect Your Toddler," *Parents' Magazine*, XXVII (May, 1952), 52-53, 80.

A caution to parents to permit their preschool children to explore the limits of their own motor capacities, which develop so rapidly at these early ages.

117. PANDIT, SHARYN. "The Role of Instinct," *Child Study*, XXIX (Fall, 1952), 18-19.

Compares advantages and disadvantages of present social conditions in India and in the United States for encouraging self-development in children. The Indian mother is free of many of the strains which make American mothers overanxious about their children, but she lacks easy access to the social agencies which help the American mother improve her ideas on child-rearing.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

BERNICE BAXTER, GERTRUDE M. LEWIS, and GERTRUDE M. GOSS, *The Role of Elementary Education*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1952. Pp. x+374. \$4.55.

The authors of this recent book on the function of elementary education in contemporary American society open chapter viii of Part III with the challenging statement, "Schools exist for children" (p. 89). This terse statement is the keynote sentence of the book. In chapters (viii and xvi) which follow, the authors show convincingly, sincerely, and enthusiastically how schools may change for the benefit of children. For the teacher who faces modern educational practice and change with insecurity, there are numerous specific reasons and concrete examples of why children of different ages, abilities, and capacities need opportunities for group experiences in planning, solving problems, developing self-direction, and achieving individual and group goals.

Parts I and II provide a view of the setting around which schools must operate. The chapters in Part I discuss briefly the "Nature of American Society," "The Role of the Family in American Society," and "The Role of the Neighborhood and the Community in American Society." In these chapters the authors emphasize the responsibilities for education inherent in society. They state in chapter i:

Helping children and youth to achieve their full potentialities is not the sole responsibility of any institution. If the development of free and happy citizens could be delegated to a single institution or to a particular time or place, it would be a simple matter, indeed. Such is not the case, for young persons live, grow, influence others, and are influenced during the entire twenty-four hours of each day. Responsibility for their devel-

opment must be shared by the homes, and by all other institutions and organizations within the communities in which these young persons live. In a democracy, no institution may assume the exclusive task of child guidance [p. 9].

Part II is concerned with the important problem of knowing how children grow and learn. In this section the authors present briefly a few of the significant facts of child growth and development which should be the common knowledge of teachers and parents. Teachers will find the content of these chapters useful in determining some of the physical, emotional, and social needs of individual children in the classroom. Chapter vi, "Growing in Social Behavior," indicates the necessity for viewing social growth as an integral part of a child's total development and points out that social growth may well be as orderly as physical growth. In this aspect of growth, as well as in the physical and emotional aspects, teacher understanding and guidance are exceedingly important. Important principles of how children grow and learn are re-emphasized in the summaries at the close of the chapters.

In chapter x, "Planning for Educative Experiences for Children," some space is devoted to the selection of subject-matter content (arithmetic, social studies, reading, music, and other subjects) which might be considered helpful in developing educative experiences for elementary-school children. The space devoted to the range and content of social studies, in the opinion of the reviewer, might have been utilized more profitably by examples from schools showing how children develop greater sensitivity to human rights, freedom, and respect for differences and variations in the peoples of the earth. Science is not

included in this discussion. A study of science in its relation to an understanding of the physical and social world would aid in achieving some of the principal goals of the authors. From the point of view of children's interest, science often opens the way for a better understanding of children's needs.

In Part IV, "School in Action," the authors give many practical examples for applying what one *knows* about children to ways of helping them. They show how knowledge of children gained through simple narrative accounts reveals to a teacher the values inherent in continuous learning. For example, Ronnie's record takes him from the kindergarten-primary, and intermediate divisions (Grades IV-VI) of the school on into the upper unit (Grades VII-VIII). Into the simple record of Ronnie and his four classmates is interwoven a description of parent relationships and social status. These accounts reveal the value of continuity in planning for children.

In the closing chapter, "Elementary Education Faces the Future," the authors reaffirm the need for (1) shared responsibility of teachers and parents in planning, (2) extension of the educational program to open the way for well-planned educational facilities for young children, (3) flexibility of physical space and equipment, (4) redirection of teaching procedures, and (5) grouping of children according to social maturity. These needs will be best achieved if administrators and teachers have an understanding of the social processes involved in the world of today, as well as a knowledge of child growth and development. One outstanding feature of this book is the sincere effort of the authors to relate child growth and development to the social world in which a child lives and to emphasize the importance of continuity in learning. At the close of this chapter the authors list five important concepts for which they feel the elementary school has an immediate and future responsibility. Teachers will find these concepts helpful in determining goals for different maturity levels.

Along with many good points, the book

has some inadequacies. There is considerable overlapping of material. The authors state in the Foreword that the reader may be disturbed by seemingly useless repetition between the first three parts and Part IV, "The School in Action." Even though the authors justify this repetition, this reader was disturbed. Why should one book try to serve so many purposes? The reviewer feels that the book could have been strengthened if the writers had used authoritative footnotes to establish the accuracy and acceptability of some of the statements made in the text. Research findings on such controversial subjects as continuous promotion, phonetics, reading readiness, and selection of arithmetic content would be welcomed by many readers.

In education today there is an urgent need for helping teachers develop ways of finding out if the goals of modern education are actually achieved in practice. Do changes in children's behavior actually take place? What evidence do we have? How do we find out? Thoughtful discussion on the topic of evaluation would give the goals of this book additional strength in parent circles.

Teachers who read this book and accept its philosophy as a working one will be stimulated to change practice. Many classrooms will lose their rigidity. The reviewer enjoyed the book. If the review could be given in one sentence it would read: "Too little about too much."

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P. ROY BRAMMELL, *Your Schools and Mine*.
New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1952.
Pp. viii+438. \$4.50.

This is not just another "introduction-to-education" textbook. *Your Schools and Mine* is an up-to-date and comprehensive treatment of the American school system, which stresses the need for familiarity with facts

and a full understanding of what we have been trying to accomplish culturally, socially, vocationally, and morally for our people. The content and method here employed contribute constructively to the professional and institutional orientation of those who aspire to careers of teaching and administration. For the layman, also, this subject matter has a message and meaning of educational and civic significance.

Roy Brammell has organized his discussion logically and has provided motivation for the reader. School directors, patrons, and taxpayers can benefit extensively by contact with, and stimulation from, the authoritatively developed topics. The European historical background and the early American struggle for a cultural and academic foothold provide excellent points of departure for the textual sequence.

An illustration of justifiable continuity is found in chapters iii, iv, and v. First, we find the ideal of American education skilfully handled, emphasizing our peculiar and urgent aims and purposes. Immediately following is a challenging presentation of education as it is conducted and made available for the children of England, France, Sweden, Denmark, Russia, China, India, Mexico, Canada, Germany, and Japan. Some mention is made of the Latin-American problems represented, in general, by those of South America. In the case of Japan and Germany, it is chiefly the difficult program of re-education that is outlined and appraised.

Subsequent to these important subjects we have the following inviting bill-of-fare—organization of American education, support of schools, the American educational ladder, school population, counseling, learning-teaching relationships, evaluation of outcomes, school and community interrelationships, the profession of education, and the "Educational Front." This last unit presents a list of twenty-one challenges for Americans to consider seriously as they contemplate the national scene. We are invited to weigh carefully the operation and effectiveness of the

school of today, in order to be prepared to utilize forces available for improving the educational facilities to be offered our youth tomorrow.

Close attention should be given the two pages dealing with Russia. Studying these pages will be definitely rewarding for the general reader, for in them the author indicates clearly the contrast between the pioneering of Peter the Great and Catherine II in behalf of a backward people struggling for enlightenment and the vicious policy of those who now employ heartless and medieval means for keeping their countrymen docile, subservient, and ignorant of the all-round progress being achieved elsewhere in the world.

At the close of each chapter some strong statements are made in the field of doctrine and principles of belief, followed by the arresting question, "What do you say?" And throughout the volume every chapter is terminated with the suggestion that the reader give thoughtful consideration to the desirability of accepting or rejecting the viewpoints that have been introduced. We commend this procedure—a phase of classroom technique frequently neglected by the instructor.

As proof of the progressiveness and freshness of the topics offered for study and discussion, these illustrations are cited: the Ford Foundation, UNESCO, critical movements in China, the threat of communism in India, White House conferences, the Eight-Year Study, philosophy of our current educational offering, problems in postwar occupied countries, learning readiness, the "pilot" school, and life-adjustment education. The reviewer was disappointed, on the other hand, not to discover more material concerning moral and spiritual values, contemporary curriculum experiments, the social and civic foundations of character-building, progress in world literacy, reconstruction legislation, new types of teacher education and professional recruiting and the international exchange of students and teachers.

In defense of his opening comment this reviewer wishes to stress the thought-arousing

aspect of this syllabus. It is a good teaching instrument for any beginning students of education. There are both large and small topical divisions, conspicuously captioned for prompt investigation. Outlines are forcefully used, but in moderation in order to avoid monotony. Tables and charts are timely, and inspection of them will be fruitful. Researches are reported convincingly, with practical applications of the research findings implied or sharply stated. "Selected Reading References" are listed chapter by chapter at the end of the book. These are a few of the textual features deserving of special mention.

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ALICE MIEL and ASSOCIATES, *Co-operative Procedures in Learning*. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. Pp. x+512. \$3.75.

"My aim is to be a good sport," was included on a child's list of aims and activities he had planned to accomplish and participate in that day. How many of the millions of children and youth entering classrooms across the nation this day will have the opportunity to establish aims and help decide on the tasks they are to perform? Probably few will engage in the kinds of practices described in *Co-operative Procedures in Learning*. What are the reasons that the great bulk of youthful learners have little or no opportunity to engage in this fruitful kind of learning experience?

Indications are that many more teachers might employ co-operative learning procedures if adequate help of the right kind were available to them. The literature contains a considerable amount of discussion of the theory of co-operative planning and much extolling of its merits. But descriptions of co-operative learning practices carried on by

teachers in classroom situations are scanty. This book fills concretely a portion of that gap.

Co-operative Procedures in Learning should occupy an accessible position on the desk of every school worker interested in co-operative endeavors with children. It is a volume rich in illustrative accounts of teachers and children working together in actual situations, from which others can draw help on nearly every conceivable facet of co-operative endeavor. It is not, however, simply a compilation of descriptive practices. Each illustration has been selected to make a point. Moreover, principles of co-operative action are abstracted from the descriptions of actual events. Revealing, too, are the analyses and "leads" to understanding preceding and following the illustrative materials.

Part I deals with opportunities for using co-operative procedures in schools. Here the authors describe planning in a great variety of situations and in relation to many types of activities, ranging from reaching decisions on the use of time to planning for the solution of school-wide problems.

Part II is concerned with the delineation of trouble points met by teachers using co-operative practices. Depicted herein are real classroom practices, ranging from "How To Get Started" to "Ways and Means of Gathering Evidence of Pupil Growth in and through Co-operative Procedures." A final chapter entitled "A Summary and a Look Forward" will not be overlooked by the discerning reader.

The limitations of the book are recognized by its authors. Descriptive accounts of group planning are sketchy, fragmentary, and limited mostly to the elementary-school level. These and other limitations listed in the Introduction point up clearly the need for continued research and publication in this area of investigation. The presentation of evidence of pupil growth resulting from participation in co-operative planning is disappointing. It appears, however, that this is a weakness arising from the loosely knit

framework of the study and from unfamiliarity of teachers, generally, with the techniques of gathering and reporting data systematically and objectively.

An effort has been made by the authors to face the really tough questions concerning the merits of co-operative procedures. A serious criticism leveled at group process is the charge that outcomes tend to be limited to the least-common-denominator level of thought and action. Although this question has been dealt with somewhat in chapter xv, the study did not lend itself to the gathering of conclusive evidence on this point.

There is considerable merit in the arrangement of the contents of the book. The clustering of illustrative material under action headings makes items of a related nature easy to locate. A helpful appendage is the double Index; examples of co-operative procedures are indexed by grade levels, by teachers referred to two or more times, and by the types of records maintained. This is followed by the usual topical Index.

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J. ALLEN HICKERSON, *Guiding Children's Arithmetic Experiences: The Experience-Language Approach to Numbers*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. Pp. xii+322. \$5.00.

This book is a "methods" book written primarily for pre-service teachers, in-service teachers, and parents. Although the author does not explicitly exclude any part of the arithmetic program, the main emphasis is on the teaching of the computation skills involved in the four fundamental arithmetic operations. His thesis is that "arithmetic-teaching can be improved by relating arithmetic symbols to the child's concrete experiences" and "by emphasizing the meaning of arithmetic symbols" (p. vii). This produces a blending of the social-meaning theory and what might be called a "symbolic-meaning" theory.

Part I includes three chapters which describe three major purposes of the arithmetic program as the author sees them. These are: (1) "Learning To Represent Concrete Situations with Arithmetic Symbols," (2) Learning To Compute with Meaning and Efficiency," and (3) "Understanding the Number System." Also included in Part I are a chapter on evaluation and a chapter on the organization of the arithmetic program.

Part II presents four chapters explaining the steps involved in learning to compute with whole numbers. The author describes, for example, thirty-four steps in the addition of whole numbers. One chapter is devoted to each of the four arithmetic processes.

Part III is made up of six chapters advocating procedures to be used in the teaching of computation with fractions. Chapter x discusses the meaning of fractional parts, and chapters xi-xiv enumerate steps in the addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of common fractions and decimal fractions. The last chapter describes the steps in computing with per cents.

The major criticism of this book is that it emphasizes the objective of developing skill in arithmetic computation but only superficially considers the objective of developing skill in solving problems which involve quantitative relationships. Furthermore, although the book purports to emphasize the experience-language approach to numbers, it is not consistent in the language advocated. This can perhaps be illustrated best by quoting the author's statements:

Numbers used in computation are adjectives and need nouns to modify; the operational signs, +, -, ×, ÷, are verbs telling what is happening to the nouns. . . . The symbol "+" is the verb and means "grouped with" or "combined with" or "arranged with," and so forth [p. 18].

The teacher can explain that + means *and* and = means *are* [p. 76].

$6 \div 2 = 3$. (To be read, "Six arranged in two's make three.") [p. 140.]

90

The division symbolism $3\overline{)270}$ is worded, "3 into 270 is 90" [p. 145].

The arithmetic shorthand for "of" is "×" so that $\frac{1}{4}$ of 15 can be written $\frac{1}{4} \times 15$ [p. 216].

These inconsistencies are especially pertinent since the experience-language approach is founded on the aspect of symbolism in arithmetic. Surely, the words *and*, *into*, and *of* are not verbs describing what is happening to the objects under consideration.

The merits of the book are chiefly two: (1) the detailed description of the teaching of the computational skills and (2) extensive illustrations of the continual use of approximate answers in all computing. Unless one is particularly interested in these aspects of the arithmetic program, he will not find this book very useful.

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FRANCES CALDWELL DURLAND, *Creative Dramatics for Children: A Practical Manual for Teachers and Leaders*. Yellow Springs, Ohio: Antioch Press, 1952. Pp. 182. \$1.50 paper; \$2.75 cloth.

Written to help not only the teacher but the layman, Mrs. Durland's book covers some of the basic and important principles of creative dramatics. Although not specifically stated, the reader will gather that this material was put into published form to aid the teacher or the leader of children under ten years of age, since techniques for use with rather young children are stressed. Mrs. Durland's conception of creativeness is explained rather clearly in the following sentences:

Creative power is the means to draw out of any situation all that is in it, intellectually and otherwise. As applied to a dramatic group we mean by creative: an interchange of ideas, a group experience in dramatic form that results in an art form, or play [p. 142].

Chapters i-v contain discussions of the various techniques used in creative dra-

matics, such as selecting the material from which to work and handling the variety of problems which arise in this activity, and suggestions of ways in which dramatic creation can improve behavior and personality problems.

Several ideas on injecting creativity into formal directing of plays and pageants are brought forth in chapters vi and vii. Step-by-step outlines or scene analyses of several possible stories for use in this field are given in chapter viii, while chapter ix contains a more complete discussion of two groups of children from widely varying family situations and their experiences with "Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs." The appendixes include particularly interesting anecdotal reports on these groups. The last chapter states the author's views on making use of creativity in all forms of teaching to bring out children's latent talents and interests.

Time and again, the necessity is stressed for presenting the children with very logical reasons for a suggested movement, dialogue, or characterization. Mrs. Durland also brings out the important point that, if a teacher is not willing to give a great deal of time and patience to creative dramatics, it would be better not to try this technique at all. If the child is forced into creative dramatics, his work will be stiff and unimaginative, and he may learn to dislike this art form intensely.

Although most of the suggestions for formal directing are excellent, many teachers and directors would take issue with Mrs. Durland's ideas on memorization of lines. If the person who reads this book, be he teacher or otherwise, is truly interested in creative dramatics, he would be wise to use Mrs. Durland's manual not as an all-sufficient textbook but as a reference. It is an excellent base from which to go on to other more comprehensive books which have already been written on the subject.

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is struck with the number of times certain questions pertaining to in-service education will recur. Among the more important questions currently of concern to administrators are those relating to (1) leadership problems, (2) types of in-service education programs, (3) the nature of problems to be considered in such programs, (4) lay participation in in-service education, and (5) evaluation of in-service programs.

Problems of leadership.—No one can deny that the superintendent, the principal, the curriculum co-ordinator, or other persons with status in a school system have responsibilities for providing leadership in the in-service study activities. Increasingly, however, the valuable leadership potential within the teaching staff is being recognized, and the older pattern, in which leadership was expected to come only from those with official responsibility, is giving way in many schools. Encouraging staff members to assume leadership in many aspects of the in-service program secures greater involvement in the program and spreads more widely the opportunities for genuine professional growth.

How successfully the sharing of leadership responsibilities will be carried out depends in part upon the way in which the status leader himself functions. He can, by his actions, effectively discourage others from assuming leadership while at the same time he is professing a desire to have them exercise initiative. But successful sharing of leadership functions

also requires the staff members to be alert in recognizing leadership roles that they can assume with effectiveness. A teacher who undertakes to mobilize the resources of a staff in order to facilitate the making of a wise decision exercises an important leadership function. An action of this kind tends to counteract the all too common disposition of staff members to remain aloof and to keep quiet when important decisions are being made. Such an attitude can result in decisions by default, and such decisions are rarely the best that might be made.

Types of programs.—A second question of concern to school systems in planning in-service education programs is: What type of program should be set up? Should it be a workshop, an institute, a series of staff meetings, outside lectures? All of these, no doubt, have merit in some degree, and certainly they need not be viewed as alternatives. The more important question would seem to be, not whether one or the other of these patterns should be followed, but rather how the work can be planned so that it will be maximally useful to all who take part. Research would tend to indicate that the program will be most successful (1) if it is of a co-operative nature in which teachers and administrators can work together on problems, (2) if it is directly related to the fundamental concerns of the participants, (3) if it is planned so as to be stimulating and interesting to the participants, and (4) if it is concerned

with goals toward which at least some progress is visible during various stages of the program.

Nature of problems for consideration.

—Closely allied to the question of the type of program to be chosen is the matter of the nature of problems that may profitably be considered through in-service education programs. As stated in the previous paragraph, the programs should be related to the fundamental concerns of teachers and administrators. Quite commonly these are very specific concerns, often centering upon such questions as, "What units should we include in our fourth-grade course in social studies?" Less frequently a staff expresses interest in the more general problem of providing continuity in the learning experiences throughout the elementary school. Whether the problem selected for study is a specific or a general one often depends largely upon the previous experience of a staff in co-operative in-service study. Generally, a staff that has grown accustomed to working in this way is somewhat more likely to give attention to problems of broad significance and at the same time attempt to apply the insights thus gained to specific situations.

Not infrequently the persons responsible for the development of in-service study programs either overlook the importance of starting with the staff at the point where it is or make a gross misjudgment as to just what that point may be. It appears that the principle of beginning where the learner is, so often proclaimed as

gospel in teaching, is largely forgotten in programs of in-service education. Failing to find out the problems that genuinely concern the teachers, many administrators go ahead blithely with projects of interest to themselves. Such a procedure all too frequently leaves teachers and administrators disillusioned, frustrated, and even antagonistic toward each other.

Lay participation.—A fourth question which schools commonly face is related to the involvement of parents and other lay persons in co-operative in-service study programs. The school does not exist in a vacuum, although many in-service programs appear to be based on the assumption that it does operate entirely separated from other institutions in the community. The columns of this journal have from time to time carried descriptions of how parents have become involved in the school program, for example, in the development of improved reporting practices. Yet in far too many schools, work on this and other problems often proceeds without the benefit of parent judgments. No doubt, the situation is due in part to uncertainty in the minds of educators as to what the possible outcomes of parent and lay participation may be. In part, also, the reluctance to involve parents and other citizens grows out of uncertainty as to the kinds of questions that may appropriately be considered jointly.

Teachers and parents are equal partners in the educational enterprise of preparing effective citizens for a

democratic society. Both partners have much to learn about their respective roles and about the roles of each other. Putting up a curtain of self-sufficiency around the schools cannot but make more difficult the job of providing a good educational program for youth. Those schools that do seek to involve parents in their co-operative in-service study programs frequently report that the results have been most encouraging. Among the most important outcomes are a strengthening of the ties between school and community and a deepened understanding of the problems that teachers and parents face in common.

Evaluating the program.—Teachers and administrators often wonder just how effective their in-service education programs really are. In many school systems there is considerable dissatisfaction with the programs, often evidenced by apathy, failure to take leadership responsibilities, clock-watching, failure to follow through the suggestions, frequent criticism of the leadership, shifting from one problem to another without dealing adequately with any. Probably the most important reason for dissatisfaction is the feeling that little or nothing happens as a consequence of any effort that is put forth.

If an in-service study program seems to make no appreciable difference in the way the school operates, one cannot condemn the critics. Instead, it would seem useful to work toward the development of continuous appraisal of the program of in-service

study in order to ascertain whether it is actually moving the staff closer to clearly defined objectives. Even the best of in-service programs stand to gain by such appraisal. Yet it is surprising how infrequently a systematic evaluation is undertaken. As J. Cecil Parker, of the School of Education, University of California, Berkeley, pointed out in his 1951 report, *The Alameda Mental Health Institute: An Evaluation*, "It is one of the real tragedies of today's world that people spend time and money in endeavors intended to improve their competencies on the job with little or no consideration being given as to whether or not the endeavor actually serves its purpose."

Let's make no mistake about it: evaluating an in-service program is a difficult job. There is no method that can be presented on a silver platter to school systems. The present writers have been giving a good deal of thought to this problem. In research projects that they have under way, it has been helpful to set up certain guide posts. Among these guide posts are the following:

1. The only significant way to evaluate the effectiveness of an in-service training program is to describe the changes that take place as a consequence of it, both in the school program and in the ways in which administrators and teachers implement that program.
2. Such changes are complex phenomena. Therefore a variety of methods for collecting data must be used to get an adequate picture of them.
3. In order to know what changes to ob-

serve, the objectives or goals to be achieved through an in-service program must be clearly defined.

4. In evaluating an in-service education program, one must not only examine changes that have occurred in the individuals but also examine ways that have been used to achieve these ends.

Few school systems in the United States today fail to recognize the need for continuous in-service study for teachers and administrators. Few schools are wholly satisfied with their programs for in-service training. The problems raised in the preceding pages can be handled adequately if teachers and administrators, working co-operatively, will define their goals in some detail, will start with problems that are vital to the group, will provide means of interesting and stimulating all participants, will objectively evaluate their activities, and will be broad-minded and creative in bringing resources to bear on their problems.

NOTES ON SCHOOL HOUSING

THESE DAYS one rarely encounters a school superintendent who is not more or less deeply engrossed in a building program. It is now becoming increasingly clear that school housing facilities are still woefully deficient in spite of the intensive building activity since the war. In commenting upon the *School Facilities Survey: Second Progress Report*, prepared by the Federal Office of Education, Commissioner Earl J. McGrath has pointed out that "more than 325,000 instruction rooms and related facilities are

currently needed this year to relieve overcrowding and to replace obsolete facilities." The estimated cost of supplying these needs is 10.7 billion dollars, of which state and local school districts under current laws and methods of financing could provide only 5.8 billion. The school housing shortage will become more critical year by year, according to Commissioner McGrath, and there is an urgent need to reconsider financing practices and to seek substantial new sources of revenue for building purposes. The survey has indicated that 155,000 additional classrooms are required today to relieve overcrowding and another 170,000 are needed to replace obsolete facilities. Eighteen per cent of the elementary- and secondary-school pupils are attending classes in buildings that do not meet fire-safety conditions.

Forty-six states and territories are participating in this national survey, which is bringing together for the first time on a nation-wide basis information to be used for current and long-range school planning and construction programs.

School officials who anticipate building in the near future will be interested in a brief analysis in the January, 1953, issue of the *School Executive*, in which Harold F. Clark, economic analyst of Teachers College, Columbia University, points out that the index of school-building prices at the beginning of 1953 was approximately 205 (1939 equals 100). He estimates that building prices for 1953 will "vary from approximately stable in some

communities to very slight increases in other communities," but he points out that the uncertain future of building wages makes predictions difficult. At the same time Clark indicates that interest rates on school bonds continue to rise, that school bonds selling for less than 2 per cent have virtually disappeared from the market, and that a substantial number sold in October paid more than 3 per cent interest.

Important as the problems of financing are, they are by no means the only matters to which superintendents and boards of education are today giving attention in their development of plans for school building programs. Increasingly, recognition is being given to the importance of having school buildings that can serve not only the youth but the adults of a community as well. This calls for planning in terms of the anticipated needs of various groups. In this connection a new book, *Planning Elementary School Buildings*, written by N. L. Engelhardt, N. L. Engelhardt, Jr., and Stanton Leggett, and published by the F. W. Dodge Corporation (119 West Fortieth Street, New York 18), should prove helpful. This volume, profusely illustrated, is directed to school boards, civic groups, and parents, as well as to professional educators and architects. The book sells for \$12.50 a copy.

Writing in the *Georgia Education Journal* for January, 1953, Warren Gauerke, a member of the Emory University staff in the Division of Teacher Education, proposes that school

boards consider the desirability of providing facilities for exceptional children before being persuaded to authorize the erection of separate wings or structures. Gauerke bases his case against separate facilities upon the following five considerations, which he develops in some detail:

1. It is cheaper financially to include and maintain some additional classrooms and other needed facilities for the exceptional child in one or more of the regular schools in the community than to put up separate wings or new structures, which need new staffs and new equipment.

2. The administrators of schools which include some provisions for the exceptional child can so select their staffs that they will always have some teachers who are trained, experienced, and interested in the problems and needs of the physically and mentally different child.

3. School faculties need, moreover, the challenge that comes from having some pupils who require special help, so that teachers and their pupils, physical and mental health specialists—along with school administrators and the lay public—can learn better to plan co-operatively programs of rehabilitation for the handicapped or enriched programs for the brilliant child.

4. Insofar as possible, exceptional children should have the opportunity of associating with normal children whenever they can profitably do so.

5. It is vital now to tackle the problem of what constitutes adequate school housing for exceptional children.

Successful efforts to solve a particularly difficult housing situation can be very rewarding. In Flagler, Colorado, a fourfold increase in population taxed the elementary- and high-school buildings well beyond their capacities. A bad situation became worse when the high-school building burned. A

\$230,000 bond issue had been voted, but the sale of the bonds was held up because of a legal question. An additional tax levy was voted down by a narrow margin. When it became apparent that \$150,000 of the bond issue could be sold, 150 local families signed up to buy at least one \$100 bond. The amount that was realized in this way (\$120,000) was supplemented by fire insurance and money recovered from the sale of unused school property to provide a total amount sufficient to erect one building, housing twelve grades, a lunchroom, and a library. The editor of the local paper, Clyde Coulter, is quoted as follows in the November, 1952, issue of *Citizens and Their Schools*, a publication of the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools:

There are always many problems to be met in keeping pace with increasing school needs, but the Flagler community seems to have been plagued by even more problems than usual. Having met those problems, Flagler is even more proud than ordinarily of its new school.

Another example of resourcefulness in dealing with school housing problems is found in El Paso, Texas. According to the *Education Summary* for November 5, 1952, school officials there purchased adjoining building sites in four subdivisions and drew plans for a pair of two-bedroom homes:

... Walls which would normally separate the two bedrooms were omitted, but a regulation bathroom and kitchen were installed and completely furnished.

El Paso's first- and second-graders now attend school buildings which will some day

be homes. When the shortage of classroom spaces ends, the school officials will contract for the erection of partitions needed to turn the "cottage schools" into small homes, and place them on the market. They expect to make a small profit on the sale. Elementary-school buildings in El Paso cost \$801 per pupil, while the bungalow schools cost only \$429 per pupil, reports C. W. Webb, director of special activities.

A problem may have been created, however. Parents may want to send their young children to a nearby "cottage school" rather than to a large elementary school.

ATHLETIC COMPETITION FOR CHILDREN

FOR SEVERAL YEARS after the close of World War II, committees of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation and of the Society of State Directors of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation were engaged in a study of the problem of organized athletic competition for children of elementary and junior high school age. The Department of Elementary School Principals and the National Council of State Consultants in Elementary Education also assisted in the study. The report of this Joint Committee on Athletic Competition for Children of Elementary and Junior High School Age has recently appeared under the title *Desirable Athletic Competition for Children*. It is available from the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, Washington 6, D.C., at fifty cents a copy.

The recommendations of the committee are firmly and unequivocally

stated and are sure to provoke considerable discussion. In short, the committee believes that "interschool competition of a varsity pattern and similarly organized competition under auspices of other community agencies [should be] *definitely disapproved* for children below the ninth grade." Specifically, it frowns upon such things as boxing, tackle football, leagues, tournaments, all-star teams, long seasons, night games, and travel beyond the immediate neighborhood for purposes of athletic competition. The recommendations of the committee are based upon its study of the physiological, psychological, safety, and economic factors involved in such competition, as well as factors relating to school administration and school-community relationships. Some of the data accumulated in these studies are included in the report.

One of the most important parts of the document is a list of six questions which the committee feels should be answered to the satisfaction of parents, educators, and other citizens before children are permitted to participate in play days, sports days, invitational contests between schools, or similar competition sponsored by non-school groups. These questions are:

1. Are we now meeting the needs of all children through *instruction* in physical education and recreational and intramural activities? What is the quality of these phases of the program? Must they still be improved to be reasonably good for all pupils?

2. What kind of leadership will the athletic program have? Are the leaders professionally qualified? Do they know and

understand young children? Are they interested only in the welfare and happiness of boys and girls, or do they seek personal advantage—publicity, status, or financial gain through the exploitation of children?

3. Are the proposed sports and other activities appropriate for the age, maturity, skill, stage of growth, and physical make-up of the children?

4. Will there be adequate safeguards for health and well-being through: adequate protective equipment, adjustments in playing time and other rules, competent coaching and officiating, reasonable schedules in terms of frequency and time of day of contests, clean drinking water and other hygienic provisions, limited and safe travel with responsible adults, and attention to healthful practices of all kinds?

5. Is the program free of undesirable publicity and promotion? Will the child spectators and participants be permitted to grow up naturally, to be free of a distorted sense of values, of individual importance and of other aspects of living? Will they be free of unnecessary and undesirable pressures and overstimulation?

6. Will the children who participate still have opportunity for a balance in interests and activities or will the demands of athletic competition restrict their experiences in other worth-while things, such as home recreation, Boy Scouts, camping trips, hobby groups, music, drama, and arts and crafts?

Writing in the November, 1952, number of the *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, Laurie E. Campbell, associate professor of physical education for women at that institution, points out that physical education for the elementary-school child has been one of the neglected areas in the educational process. She contends that in most of the nation's schools, "good elementary-school

physical-education programs are now the exception rather than the rule." She continues:

If physical education is to achieve its purposes, it seems essential to focus increased attention on the lower age groups; i.e., elementary through junior high school. These children are at the age when interest in physical activity is high, where motor learning takes place more rapidly, and where basic skills, which will be utilized by the adult, can best be acquired. It also is the age for progressive development of effective social and emotional responses through group experiences. A physical-education program geared to the needs and interests of children, under sound leadership, should make a major contribution to the general goals of education. As such, it should be equally available to all children in the school.

Miss Campbell believes that the average elementary-school teacher of today is not prepared to give proper guidance and direction to the physical-education activities of the children for whom he has responsibility and hence that programs of preparation for prospective elementary-school teachers should give greater attention to work in this area. In any event, pre-service training is not sufficient. In-service help is required, especially for those teachers who work at the upper levels of the elementary grades, where the physical-education skills which commonly interest boys and girls are highly complex. Miss Campbell sees such in-service help coming from an individual who has had specialized work in physical education, which would include courses in child growth and development and extensive laboratory experience with children.

"PROMOTING" TEACHER WITH THE PUPILS

THE ADVANTAGES and limitations of having teachers remain with a group of children for more than one year are discussed in the January, 1953, issue of the *NEA Journal* in an article by Aileen W. Robinson, principal of Edgewood Elementary School in Scarsdale, New York. The article is followed by excerpts from letters of several readers, mostly teachers, who argue on one side or the other of this matter. The now familiar statements, pro and con, are all there.

Those who support the plan say that it helps teachers know better both the child and his parents; that it eases the strain that occurs when children have to adjust to too many teachers; that it facilitates continuity in learning and therefore maximizes the cumulative effect of learning; that it saves time for teachers; that moving from grade to grade is a more stimulating challenge to teachers than teaching the same grade year after year.

Those who are in opposition are fearful of the outcomes if a child and a teacher do not get on well together. They say also that children should have experience with many teachers, that they will benefit by coming in contact with different personalities. They are apprehensive about the ability of teachers to adjust their methods and their expectations when they move from grade to grade, especially when they move to a lower grade to start again with a new group of children. They feel that one of the re-

wards of teaching is the opportunity that it affords for coming in contact with many new children each year.

There is apparently considerable interest in one or another of the plans for having teachers remain with a group for more than one year. In some communities where the idea has taken hold, children remain with the same teacher throughout the first three grades. There is more than a passing interest in extending this arrangement, or some modification of it, at least to the intermediate grades. In some quarters the growing dissatisfaction with departmentalization even in Grades VII and VIII reflects a feeling that children would be better served if they worked with fewer teachers.

It would appear that a good bit of experience has already been accumulated in this matter and that the time has come to replace the judgments and considered opinions of teachers and administrators with more precise and objective evidence. If systematic and rigorous study of this problem has been undertaken, the writers are unaware of it. If no such study has been done, or if none is currently being undertaken, there is urgent need for one. Actually, the problem ought to serve rather well as a major research enterprise. One of the obvious difficulties, of course, is that it would require continuous study over a long period of time. There would be many aspects of the problem that could be looked into, each of which could be defined precisely enough to make possible a well-conceived investigation. The time required, the many interesting facets

that could be explored, and the need for different kinds of competence to carry on a well-planned research effort in this area—all suggest that we have here a “natural” for co-operative study. The secretary of the editorial committee of the *Elementary School Journal* would be pleased to receive communications from those who share with him an interest in seeing a systematic study of this problem undertaken in the near future. If there are some studies already completed or under way, he would also appreciate having them called to his attention.

A SURVEY OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRACTICES

FOR TWO YEARS and a half, nine staff members of the elementary-school section of the Federal Office of Education engaged in a co-operative study of elementary-school practices throughout the nation. Their observations are reported in a publication entitled *Schools at Work in 48 States*, which appears as Bulletin 1952, Number 13, of the Office of Education, available from the Government Printing Office for thirty-five cents. Helen K. Mackintosh was co-ordinator for the study, while Effie Bathurst and Glenn Blough prepared the manuscript of the report.

The practices are described under the following general headings: “Teachers at Work,” “Pupils at Work,” “The School Program,” and “School and Community at Work Together.” While it has not been possible to describe in detail all the practices to which reference is made, the descrip-

tions are nevertheless sufficiently complete to give the reader a reasonably clear picture of what is going on in many elementary schools throughout the country. School systems are not identified except as to the state in which they are located. In some cases this omission is regrettable, for a reader is quite likely to want to follow up an interest in a particular account by securing further information about the practice described.

It is always a questionable procedure to assert that a trend toward this or that is observable, and those who have prepared this report have not intended to make such assertions. Nevertheless, at various points throughout the document there are useful summaries which call attention to the general impressions obtained by those who participated in the survey. With respect to the section on in-service education, for example, the following summary comments are made:

The foregoing in-service education programs seem to recognize certain basic principles of teacher education: that it is important for teachers to identify the problems which they feel are essential for study; that they themselves should develop the method for studying these problems and carry out their plans; that there should be provision for individual differences in these plans *since teachers have different aptitudes, interests, skills, and abilities and work best when these are taken into account; that learning by doing is appropriate for teachers as well as for any other learner and consequently the program should not be entirely a "listening" one; that a variety of ways may be employed to bring about growth in teaching ability and professional attitude; and that studying children and how they grow*

and develop is fundamental to an in-service teacher education program [p. 10].

... In connection with teacher participation we should say that several instances were reported of teachers also being involved in such projects as planning new school buildings or remodeling old ones. In some places, teachers submit ideas and have no further responsibilities; in others the architect and superintendent work closely with teachers, custodians, parent groups, and sometimes older children from the time the building is first thought of until it stands in full use.

The activities described in these pages seem to show that better curriculums and better teaching and learning result when everyone concerned with the educative process is involved in making the plans and carrying them out. Many persons work together in the selection of furnishings, in determining wall coloring and room arrangements, and in formulating other plans that help to make the building meet the curriculum needs [pp. 18-19].

A THOUGHT ON PUBLIC RELATIONS

NOWADAYS one rarely attends a meeting of educators without hearing a more or less extended discussion of "public relations." This often appears to involve such matters as increasing the public's understanding of what the schools are doing, getting laymen to participate in the solution of some of the school's problems, and encouraging the public to support schools more adequately than is presently the case. However, school people often overlook the importance of pupils' opinions in fashioning the impressions adults have of their schools. In the main, a child's reaction to school is largely determined by his reactions to his teacher. V. L. Pickens,

chairman of the Division of Practical Arts, Vocational, and Family Life Education of Kansas City (Missouri) public schools, has a brief editorial on this matter in the December 19, 1952, issue of *School News and Views*, a publication of the Philadelphia public schools. Mr. Pickens writes:

Each morning millions of our best ambassadors pour into our schools; each afternoon they troop home from our classrooms, and with them goes the greatest potential of all for molding the opinions of the owners of the public schools. Each evening, around the dinner tables of the nation the question is asked, "What did you do in school today?" and the answer to that question will determine opinion.

It is, therefore, to be hoped that the answer will not stem from shortchanging, perfunctory, dull-as-ditch-water teaching, but from the efforts of skilful, sympathetic, understanding teachers. For public relations—good or bad—start with the teacher in the classroom. The "top brass" may make speeches, join service clubs, write annual reports, and use the airwaves and press; but good public relations will not be achieved unless teachers send home satisfied customers.

What the pupils think of the teacher the parents think; and what the parents think of the teacher and the school, most taxpayers in the community believe. For this reason the teachers must be the main strength in any school public-relations program—there is no better way to win parents and make friends than to send home a satisfied and satisfactory product.

MORE ABOUT REPORTING PROGRESS OF PUPILS

IN COMMENTING in these columns about interesting items received in the editorial offices of the *Elementary School Journal*, the writers of the news notes frequently make state-

ments which bring correspondence from the readers. In the January issue Mrs. De Pencier discussed some very interesting developments in Springfield, Delaware County, Pennsylvania, where work has been going on for some time on the problem of reporting pupil progress. She raised two questions, one of which related to the problem of informing the pupil about his progress, and the second of which inquired about how the school program is arranged in order that the teacher may have time for conferences with parents in the school day.

Miss Josephine B. Wolfe, supervisor of elementary education in Springfield, has responded to these questions in a letter to the editors, and we are pleased to quote the following remarks from her letter:

In reply to the statements, I would like to add that continuous evaluation of pupil progress is a daily procedure in our schools. The pupils know exactly where they are, why they are at a certain point, and how they are progressing. In fact, the children keep the parents so well informed that the parents have this information before their scheduled conference time.

Conferences with parents are scheduled in October and March on school time. Five half-days are allotted each teacher at each time of the year. We have found this quite satisfactory. The conferences usually begin at 1:15 and last until 4:00. This allows for approximately 15–20 minutes for each conference period. As you probably know, conferences should be brief and to the point. Too much idle chatter often is the result of long-drawn-out conferences.

KENNETH J. REHAGE
STANLEY J. HEYWOOD

WHO'S WHO FOR MARCH

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by KENNETH J. REHAGE, associate professor of education, and STANLEY J. HEYWOOD, research assistant in the Department of Education, University of Chicago. LELAND S. MARCH, general supervisor of instruction in the public schools of Monroe County, Key West, Florida, maintains that, because of the increased mobility and broadened outlook of the people of the United States, it would be well to have a common core of education, so that pupils moving from the schools of one state to those of another would not suffer. GERTRUDE HILDRETH, associate professor of education at Brooklyn College, Brooklyn, New York, demonstrates how various types of teacher-devised, pupil-made, or handmade experience charts may aid beginners in learning how to read. A. M. ALEXANDER, superintendent of schools at Mount Vernon, Missouri, demonstrates that it is not always possible, without the use of objective tests, to determine the capacity of pupils for achieving in school work or to discover whether pu-

pils are achieving up to their capacity. LOIS FULCHER HARVEY, teacher-consultant in arithmetic at the San Diego, California, city schools, reports a study of the effectiveness of a procedure of testing, reteaching, and retesting for improving skills in arithmetic. GEORGE SPACHE, head of the Reading Laboratory and Clinic of the University College, University of Florida, discusses a new formula for judging the readability of materials written for pupils reading below the fourth-grade level. The KINDERGARTEN-PRIMARY STAFF of the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago presents a list of selected references on kindergarten-primary education.

Reviewers of books ROBERT E. KEOHANE, chairman, Department of Social Sciences, Shimer College, Mount Carroll, Illinois. JOHN I. GOODLAD, director of the Division of Teacher Education, Emory University and Agnes Scott College. ORVILLE E. PETERSON, supervisor of secondary education in the Cincinnati, Ohio, public schools.

A PROPOSAL FOR EDUCATION FOR NATIONAL LIVING

LELAND S. MARCH

Monroe County Public Schools, Key West, Florida



PRESENT-DAY LIVING has produced a problem in education that was not foreseen by our founding fathers when they made the education of the young a function of the states. It was originally planned that each state would set up all the laws, procedures, and programs by which the children were to be educated for life. Naturally, at that time each state made its blueprint for a public school system with a provincial point of view, as transportation and communication compelled the populace to live within very narrow borders. This restriction, in turn, encouraged a narrow outlook on life. The majority of the children who were born in one state could be expected to live out their entire lives in that state. In those circumstances there was little need for concern about what was being taught, or when it was being taught, in any other state, near or far. We are still operating under that plan.

Today the travel time from New York City to San Francisco or from Chicago to New Orleans is less than was the travel time from New York City to Boston when George Washington made his "Presidential tour" of the original colonies. With present ease of travel and the changed economy in

America, an increasingly large number of children start their education in one state and complete it in another. Some attend several school systems during their school years. Furthermore, it is common for one state to educate a person with its state problems in mind, only to have him as an adult spend his life in a different state with different problems.

EXISTING DIFFERENCES IN STATE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

In view of these conditions, it is high time that we did more serious thinking about the problem of developing a national program of education, or at least homogenizing our forty-eight state programs into a more harmonious plan of preparing the young people for national living. The writer does not mean to imply that we should scrap our present plan of state responsibility for education but to emphasize the necessity of taking a more "national" point of view in education. A person has only to talk with pupils from other states than his own to discover that the emphasis on what should be taught, when it should be taught, and what is important varies a great deal from state to state.

A few years ago the writer initiated a curriculum development program in his county school system, and solicited curriculum guides, courses of study, and study guides from each of the states and from more than a hundred city school systems. All the school systems expected pupils to learn to read and write, perform the fundamental skills, and learn somewhat similar facts in most subjects. However, it was immediately evident why pupils are at a disadvantage in crossing boundaries while they are progressing through school. One state expected a child to go much farther in elementary arithmetic than others; some states placed the skills in arithmetic in different grades; other states differed in the amount of social studies in each grade. Among the various states there were entirely different requirements for graduating from high school. Can any one set of educators be so far ahead of the educators in other states that they can be so different and all be right?

Each state will stoutly defend its idiosyncrasies on the basis of local problems and needs, forgetting that children no longer live their lives within the borders of one state. The boy who follows major-league baseball often selects for his favorite team one which is several states away from his home. He knows a great deal about the players—where they were born, often in a variety of states, and in what state the team has spring training—and all these factors involve a number of states besides the boy's native residence.

Parents recognize the differences in state education programs and the handicaps that these differences place on their children. Why cannot educational leaders take more active steps to correct these handicaps? More than once, parents have requested that their children be placed in a grade ahead of that called for on their school record when entering a new state, saying, "The superintendent told us our children would have to be retarded a grade when they came back there from your state." There will always be differences in the quality of school programs in the various states as long as different amounts of money are expended for schools, but it is possible to come closer than a year's difference, if such disparity actually exists. If educational leaders desire to be worthy of the name, they must actively work toward the development of a common axis or core of education in all the forty-eight states, around which each state can build any additional requirements it desires.

COMMON AXIS OF EDUCATION

The following program is presented as a step toward the development of a common axis around which each state program can be built.

1. *National objectives and goals.*—The leading educators of America should be drawn together to formulate a set of objectives for national education. These should be broad enough to be adaptable to the needs and resources of every state. If any state cannot meet what is evidently good for the entire United States, help

should be given that state for the sake of the children, who will probably live in several states during their lifetimes. These objectives should then be adopted by each state department of education and implemented by state conferences with local educators.

2. *Common certification requirements for all teachers.*—Certification requirements for teachers should become only standards for the preparation of good teachers everywhere. At present, many states seem to set up peculiarities in their certification laws to insure that local teachers and state residents will be given the first chances at jobs, regardless of the ability of out-of-state candidates. Some states have had laws requiring local boards of education to hire state residents in preference to out-of-state residents if one of each applies and both meet the certification laws. This requirement disregards all other qualifications that the out-of-state candidate may have, such as successful experience, personal abilities, and advanced training. States do not now honor the certification requirements of other states—a lack of reciprocity which places an unwarranted burden on the teachers.

The main purpose of some certification standards seems to be to keep university summer-school classes filled with teachers. This exploitation of a profession should give way to the training of good teachers. No other profession requires that its members return to school every few years for five or six semester hours of training—training in anything under the sun re-

gardless of its relation to what the teacher is teaching.

National standards of certification would eliminate the poor teachers. It would make teaching more attractive to high-school students, who would then realize that with a teaching certificate they could earn a living in any state, instead of in only one state. At present, no one could live long enough to take all the courses that would certify him to teach in each of the forty-eight states.

3. *Grade placement of subject matter.*—What a help it will be to the pupil moving from one state to another when the same subjects are taught in the same grades! The author always felt a deep sympathy for the student who, entering high school from another state, needed certain subjects to graduate but had to spend an extra year in high school because the state and local requirements had placed subjects in different orders in his previous school and his present school. Elementary-school students also miss blocks of important work because of disparities in grade placement of subject matter among different states. Such differences could be ironed out easily by enlightened educators.

4. *Standards of achievement and promotion.*—While the author stands on a middle ground between 100 per cent promotion and rigid grade standards of achievement for promotion, there is much to be said in favor of setting some goals which pupils should reasonably attain by approximately each semester. These should be set up in the form of recommendations for the

normal progress of the average pupil, each school being allowed to apply them to individual pupils in the light of the school's own best judgment and philosophy. Unless some recommendations are commonly adopted for promotion, we shall always have the unfortunate situation which obtains at the present, wherein being promoted or being held back depends on which school a child attends. Geographic residence should not be a factor affecting a child's progress through school—but it is. A child should be promoted or retarded on the criterion of which will do him the most good, with many factors entering into the decision—scholastic achievement, physical size, social and emotional maturity, adjustment in his group, health, and possibly others.

5. *Entrance age of children to the public schools.*—School-entering age should be fixed on a national basis. When pupils come to a school with a report card showing completion of the first grade and yet the local state law says that they must be a few days or a few months older even to enter the schools of that state, an unpleasant situation arises. Agreement among all the states would eliminate this builder of poor public relations.

6. *High-school graduation requirements.*—The requirements for graduation from secondary schools and the sequence of the commonly required subjects differ markedly among the states, to the disadvantage of pupils who have to change residence. As mentioned before, many lose a whole year of their lives to meet require-

ments—which are of questionable value in the light of recent investigations of the progress of non-high-school graduates in college. At least, educational leaders should agree upon a common axis of courses which could be adopted by all recognized and accredited high schools.

7. *Length of the school day.*—This may seem trivial, but would not agreement on a normal school day be at least a step toward wiping away the rather valid criticism of confusion within education's ranks? This should be a minimum requirement, any school retaining the privilege to lengthen it as local need and acceptance deem advisable.

8. *Length of the school year.*—Recently the author conducted a random survey of 100 cities in the United States to ascertain the length of the school year as set by state law and local regulation. The typical length of the school year by state law was 180 days, although one state required 200 days and one only 80 days. The average city regulation prescribed 184 days. Can those states with far less than 180 days in their school year demand and receive the same respect for their school systems as those with more? We need close agreement here.

9. *Greater emphasis on national education.*—There is no objection to the idea that pupils ought to know everything about their environment, which is the argument for the requirement of exhaustive courses on local state history and geography. However, the author submits the argument that today the pupil is as much a citizen of the

United States as he was a citizen of the local state when those provincial laws were placed on the statute books. Years ago, the pupils were limited in their opportunity to become familiar with any geographic area; one state was a considerable territory for them to cover. Today the typical boy has a cosmopolitan experience of the United States, acquired through travel or gained vicariously through the radio, the motion pictures, or television. To keep our school program up to date with the experiences of our pupils, we must broaden our educational programs. To prepare our pupils for the area in which they are going to live, we must teach the history and geography of all the United States as carefully as we have been teaching state history and geography.

10. *Exchange of teachers between states.*—It has been said that no one who comes to live in a community can leave it without influencing that community for better or worse and without being influenced for better or worse by the community. If the practice of exchanging teachers between nations is accepted as a good way of promoting understanding and spreading international information, why not make exchange teaching an integral part of our program of education for national living? Hire teachers from each of the typical areas of the United States—mining, cattle-raising, wheat- or corn-farming, shipping, urban, and rural areas—or exchange teachers on a one-year basis. Expect these teachers from other areas to spend time with as many groups as

possible in the school system, giving talks about their home states. Let a teacher reared on a wheat ranch, who is an exchange teacher in an urban school, meet various groups and show pictures of his father's ranch, tell of the planting and harvesting practices, and other things of interest. The school system that can give information about all the general areas and industries of the United States in this way is going to offer a greatly enriched program of vicarious experiences to its pupils, and they will be better prepared for national living.

SUMMARY

We can no longer confine our living to one community or one state. We can no longer shut ourselves off from everybody else, even if we wanted to. The improvements of modern transportation and communication, added to the changed economy of America and a more fluid population, have created the problem of providing education for pupils who get their education in more than one state or who, after being educated in one state, live and earn their bread in other states. As educational leaders, we must change our educational concepts and procedures to meet this problem. To solve the problem, we must develop in the nation a common axis of education, around which state and local programs can turn. We deserve the title of educational leaders only when we think farther and faster than the present age in which we live and when we move toward solving our problems before they come upon us.

IMPROVING READING WITH SCRIPT TEXT

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SCRIPT TEXT has been a valuable aid in teaching reading ever since it was first employed in the early twenties. Script text is a collective term to cover material variously referred to as teacher-devised, pupil-made, or hand-made experience charts in contrast to commercially printed material.

As early as 1925 the Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education on the teaching of reading included a chapter¹ in which hand-made chart material was recommended for beginning reading instruction "to introduce pupils to reading as a thought-getting process."² The authors stated, "It is desirable to delay the introduction of the primer until considerable facility has been developed in reading exercises of the type just described [manuscript written or printed bulletins and charts relating to current class interests and projects]."³ The California Curriculum Commission publication of 1930 gave extensive accounts of the use of

script text not only in teaching beginners but throughout the primary-grade period.⁴

At first, the use of script text was largely confined to a small group of experimental and laboratory schools. Today these materials play some part in most modern school programs, not only in the primary grades, but in the upper years as well. In schools where the method has been most fully developed, where teachers have full appreciation of the advantages of script text as well as its limitations, the use of this teacher-made material has virtually transformed the teaching of reading.

The versatility of script text is a major advantage. The material can be prepared and varied in countless ways. The most popular forms are (1) manuscript written text, large size, on the chalk board, on newsprint sheets, or on light or stiff cardboard; (2) duplicated typewritten materials, reading context, stories, worksheets, etc., and (3) manuscript written context, small size for desk use, duplicated on a machine.

¹ "Appropriate Materials for Instruction in Reading," *Report of the National Committee on Reading*, chap. vii. Twenty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1925.

² *Ibid.*, p. 183.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 185.

⁴ *Teachers' Guide to Child Development*. Developed under the direction of California Curriculum Commission. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1930.

MISCONCEPTIONS OF SCRIPT TEXT
AND ITS USE IN TEACHING
READING

Judging from the comments of many teachers and parents, the value of script text in teaching reading is not fully recognized, and the technique is not always used as effectively as it might be. Because reading in school is so universally associated with the use of textbooks, new teachers may not realize that other forms of reading context also play a role in teaching reading.

The commonest misconception is that script text is of use only in the readiness period as pre-reading experience. Teacher-made charts have been described as a prelude to book work but scarcely reading matter at all. A young teacher commented, "I've used bulletin-board hand printing right along, but I didn't know this was reading." Teachers have been advised to use charts sparingly, to use them only as a means of stimulating interest in reading or introducing the child to the notion of reading. As one teacher expressed it, "I used charts at first for readiness stimulation, but we know these experience stories do not teach actual reading. Now we're doing real reading in our books."

The children, as well as teachers and parents, need to realize that responding to script text *is* reading just as surely as interpreting book pages is reading. The teacher should hold a discussion with the children about the different sorts of things we read: signboards, road maps, timetables, books,

newspapers, "our" charts and bulletins, and so on.

However, there is an issue that must be faced if the use of handmade reading material is to be evaluated properly. There is no question that children who repeat verbatim the material of the charts with scarcely a look at them are doing "picture-book" reading and not reading in the accepted meaning of the term. Sometimes so few clues are needed for recalling the meaning that this reading cannot be considered sight reading. Experience charts are easy to memorize or to read with partial clues because the language used and the incidents described are so familiar to the children. But this is also true of easy stories in the first little reading books. Bright children promptly memorize them or guess inaccurately at unknown words. In using script text, just as with any other reading context used in the early learning stages, the teacher must be certain to check the progress that each child is making in storing up sight-word vocabulary and, to eliminate random guessing, must give practice in word recognition.

No one doubts that, up to a certain point, memorizing whole sentences and paragraphs is an asset because it accustoms the child to associating language patterns with the printed text. However, there is always the danger that the child who "reads" from memory may think he is doing what he observes adults doing when they read the daily paper or a book. It would be unfortunate for the child not to realize

early in the process that reading is more than memorized recitation and for the teacher not to detect the child who has remained at the context memorization stage when he should have moved ahead in independent reading techniques.

The script text method has also been criticized as not adaptable to individual differences among pupils in class groups. The same criticism can be made of published reading textbooks unless the teacher works with small groups or provides in other ways for individual differences. Actually, script text lends itself well to small-group teaching and to individual work with slow learners because text and vocabulary are so adaptable.

That we have in script text a bona fide method for teaching reading is attested by reports from many sources. A Cincinnati bulletin,⁵ the California Curriculum Commission Publication,⁶ the Madison (Wisconsin)⁷ and the New York City bulletins⁸ certainly take the script-text technique seriously as an authentic method of teaching beginners to read rather than considering it solely as "language experi-

ence" or "readiness stimulation." Teachers must realize not only that script text is valid for teaching primary-grade reading but also that it is a valuable adjunct to the teaching of reading in the upper grades and even with slow learners in high school. Properly used, the method can build a bridge to the first textbooks and maintain a link between the reading textbooks and life experience.

Basic reading skills and habits are learned.—Teachers who are thoroughly experienced in using their own devised materials in beginning reading affirm that all the basic reading skills can be taught with any material, whether machine-printed or hand-printed, that is within the child's range of understanding, provided the material is properly made and effectively used in instruction. In beginning reading with script text, the pupil gains some experience in responding to context clues, he begins the habit of making eye-movements across the lines, and learns to recognize some words at sight.

Sufficient experience with script text has made it possible for some children who respond to contextual clues easily to acquire independent reading habits solely through this material so that within a year or so they are ready to read easy story material with little help from the teacher. Correct eye-movements are easily demonstrated with charts by pointing out where to begin each line, how to sweep back to the beginning of the next line, and how to sweep along by phrases or

⁵ "Reading, a Phase of the Language Arts," *The Primary Manual*, Section III. Curriculum Bulletin No. 95. Cincinnati, Ohio: Board of Education, 1942.

⁶ *Op. cit.*

⁷ Madison Public Schools, Chart-Making Committee, *The Use of Charts in the Primary Grades*. Madison, Wisconsin: Curriculum Department, Madison Public Schools, 1949.

⁸ *Exploring a First Grade Curriculum*. Bureau of Reference Research and Statistics, Publication No. 30. Brooklyn: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1947.

pleasantly voiced reading. A capable child may learn as many as three hundred sight words during his first year in school largely through the use of script text or with script text and reader combined. Check lessons can be given to test accurate comprehension during silent looking and thinking. Phonics can be taught intrinsically and inductively with chart words.

No one contends that script text should supplant books or replace basic-reader series. The early use of books is essential to accustom the child to handling books, to acquaint him with book resources, to give him an appreciation of the role that commercially printed books play in daily life, and to advance reading habits to a more mature level through extensive reading. Script text should be termed *pre-book* reading rather than *pre-reading* experience when the method is used as the prelude to work in readers.

The question of vocabulary load.—One of the chief points at issue is whether the vocabulary of the experience charts and other script text material, which is normally broader than that of the first little books, is too diversified to enable beginners to learn words and to learn how to recognize individual words, except for the few children who devise their own schemes for recognizing words.

The total vocabulary of a month's experience charts in the beginning reading period would normally be larger than the vocabulary of a corresponding amount of text in published readers because, in the nature of daily

experiencing, the vocabulary changes from day to day and week to week. The teacher, however, *has complete control over the chart vocabulary*. Vocabulary difficulty is in part a function of language familiarity or unfamiliarity. Familiar terms, even though relatively difficult to pronounce, are easier for the child to learn than are new terms and phrases that he seldom uses. It is chiefly when a large number of new words are met in rapid succession that reading becomes confusing and difficult for the beginner.

Any reading text in English must make constant use of commonly recurring words that constitute a large per cent of all running text whether for beginners, for older children, or for adults. The range of vocabulary is found chiefly in the nouns—the names of things—which play such a large role in our language. The teacher tells the children these words when they occur in charts, but does not require the pupils to memorize them then and there.

Is script text identified only with current experiences?—Some teachers hold the misconception that hand-printed materials are derived only from current experiences. Teachers inquire whether a trip or an excursion away from school must always precede the reading of charts. If reading is restricted to experience charts, the children will soon be bored with it, the argument runs; they need reading that carries them into realms beyond immediate experience, that enables them to enjoy imaginative stories and

poems. There is no reason why a script-text chart should not present a fable, parts in a play, or a poem, as well as a paragraph about local happenings, directions, or a recipe.

The task of script-text preparation.—Are chart-making and the preparation of duplicated lesson sheets too time-consuming for the average teacher? Do classroom teachers lack the technical skill and the knowledge to do a good job of chart-making? Some charts are poorly made, and insufficient attention is paid to editing the material. The casual attitude sometimes adopted toward the whole matter is inimical to best results with this technique. Faulty techniques and attitudes may be due to neglect of this topic in teacher-training courses. Most student teachers receive some instruction in manuscript writing, primarily for teaching children to write.

Experienced teachers find that even a good job of chart-making is not unduly time-consuming if the principles are understood and the necessary equipment is at hand. If sufficient time is lacking for chart-making, the chalkboard is a good substitute.

Insufficient attention has been given to the role that manuscript writing or "printing" plays in the construction of high-quality script text. Good manuscript writing is the key feature. One may still see, even in a first- or second-grade room, a blackboard covered with the teacher's material written in cursive script although all the children's textbooks are printed in standard vertical unjoined lettering.

Not to use manuscript writing for all blackboard and other handmade text that the children are expected to read for themselves is to neglect the writing tool that serves as a link among all the language arts and that, in turn, links language skills to children's current experiences.

PSYCHOLOGICAL VALUES OF SCRIPT TEXT IN EARLY READING INSTRUCTION

Several major advantages are found in the use of handmade materials as one source of reading context for beginners.

Reading as thought-getting from the beginning.—Script text introduces reading as a thought-getting process. The method is identified with learning by meaningful language wholes. The sentences are read for their meaning in the entire context of the paragraph; the words have meaning in relation to others in the whole sentence. No additional step is needed to insure "reading with comprehension" or reading by "thought units."

Script text is an aid to teaching beginning reading by whole-word sight recognition, or the ideographic method. When meaningful words are repeatedly observed in varied context, they tend to be learned as wholes.

A fundamental principle suggests that learning is more effective, easy, and permanent when it can be related to the learner's purposes, interests, knowledge, experience. A child's immediate experiences have the most meaning for him. For this reason they

are more easily interpreted in printed form. Catching on to the reading trick follows with little difficulty when the approach is by total meanings and familiar ideas. Experience reading becomes an integral part of school life, the daily activities giving it meaning and purpose.

The use of script text ties in with the modern conception of childhood education as "learning by doing," with the idea of providing unified experiences in which language arts are interrelated and these, in turn, are applied to daily problem-solving. Script text is an invaluable tool for the activity program, in which life in the school becomes the curriculum.

In the higher grades, script text provides a link between current experience and subject matter in all areas of knowledge. Even arithmetic ties in with reading when problems arising in a unit are recorded for reading and study by the group. With script text serving to relate all areas of language expression, instruction in skills can be more economical and less time-consuming than it is when each of these skills is taught in isolation.

Script text and language usage.—With script text there is a link between the child's growing linguistic powers, his thinking, and his reading. After he has seen a sentence or two that express familiar ideas in his own words, the child immediately senses that print has something to tell him, that the purpose of printed matter is to keep permanent records of the things we know and think about, want to recall,

or need to learn. A beginner commented, "Reading's just talking to the page"; or, to quote the youngster cited by Marion Monroe Cox, "Reading's just talk wrote down."

The words in script text come alive because they are words that are already associated in the children's minds with ideas they have expressed orally. The first reading lessons are essentially language experiences. Reading back the conversation on the charts seems to the child much like talking: "We went to the fire house, we saw the fire engine." The children realize that the print is a clue to conversation just held or a recent experience, a way of recording ideas permanently.

Since the teacher has full control over the vocabulary the children are to meet in their reading, it can be limited or extensive, with as much repetition of words as the children require either for language development or for word recognition.

From seeing the teacher's handwritten text the children are motivated to write their own stories and to illustrate them. Here is a link between reading and learning written expression. The ease of learning manuscript writing enables the children to print their own stories, to copy the teacher's text, and to make scrapbooks containing some labeling. Script text is not only an incentive to the children to write for themselves, but it teaches spelling as the children observe the teacher spelling words while writing on the chalkboard or chart paper.

Reading with script text is fun.—

First-grade teachers inquire, "How early can we expect to have reading for fun?" The answer is, "Right away, with script text charts and messages." Relating the child's happy expressions of daily experience to reading is of supreme importance to children who are just on the threshold of learning. Through script text the first reading context can be identified with the children's own expressed thoughts and wishes, thus creating a favorable emotional response to learning. Decorating the charts gives the children another favorable association with learning to read.

Oral and silent reading.—With script text the argument about silent versus oral reading loses its point. For the beginner to want to read orally is perfectly natural because the children are retelling their recent experiences. Silent reading is learned as the children look to see the new surprise each morning on the bulletin board or pay attention to signs or when a child reviews a familiar chart for his own pleasure. There is no need later to reteach reading for silent thought-getting and little likelihood that habits of stumbling, halting oral reading will develop.

Advantages in large-size vertical print.—There are decided advantages for young children in large-size printing on a vertical surface that can be read at reading-circle or room distance. Young children are accustomed to doing much of their looking at these distances rather than at a thirteen-inch reading-page distance. The latter requires a visual focus which entails

strain and fatigue for eyes not yet accustomed to focusing on small detail at near range. The chart-size print not only saves eye fatigue but also eliminates the strain that comes from sitting still and holding a small book steadily enough to focus on the print.

Teachers report that restless, hyperactive boys can pay attention to the large chart or chalkboard text when they cannot attend to the pages of small books. The children can stand up, walk up to the chart, and use their arms for pointing to words or illustrations, as a change from sitting still. Large charts also help to center the attention of a group in the same way as movies and the stereopticon.

The use of large charts makes beginning reading more of a social activity, an aid to social adjustment. A chart can be left on the wall or the easel in full view, where the children can enjoy looking at it and studying it as much as they please, reading it to one another.

Children can become accustomed to handling pages as in a book when two or more charts are bound together.

Wall-sized reading charts are an aid to the teacher for quick evaluation of a young child's effort and progress, as well as his attitudes in learning, because his responses to the large material are easy to observe.

THE LINK BETWEEN SCRIPT TEXT AND TEXTBOOKS IN READING INSTRUCTION

Script text can serve as a link between the "before-reading" period

and the first use of basic readers if some care is exercised in the preparation of charts as the transition time approaches. As a preliminary to books, chart stories are printed in smaller-size lettering on paper mounted on stiff cardboard and held by the child in his lap as he reads. Teachers find that, when preliminary chart work is based on the first little books children are to read, the pupils can read the books with enjoyment and satisfaction. Lamoreaux and Lee⁹ have made a number of helpful suggestions for bridging over from script text to the first books. Some authorities object to juggling the chart vocabulary in order to prepare for the first book-reading. Even so, the children are certain to learn through experience charts a store of the commonest words that they will meet in the easiest readers.

There is no reason to give up charts after readers are introduced. In fact, script text has all the values above the first grade that it has for beginners. The method may be even more effective for some purposes beyond the "beginning to read" stage because of the wider vocabulary that can be employed as children gain independence in reading. Beyond the beginning-reading stage, more use is made of duplicated copies of charts, bulletins, newsheets, and other script text so that each child has a copy. Booklets are made by binding several script-text pages together. At this stage most

of the pupils are still not reading so rapidly that they outrun the teacher's supply of current handwritten text material.

During the upper primary-grade period the children are also making as full use of books as their growing independence in reading permits. The teacher supplies a rapid learner with as much "real-book" material as he requires, both for school studies and for his own interest.

How is chart-reading related to the use of basal readers and other books in the upper primary grades? The ingenious teacher will think of many ways of relating books, classroom lessons, and projects with script text. The manuals of the newer reader series give many suggestions for linking unit studies and text reading. A unit centering in the reader story and characters may be developed. A dramatization or puppet show requiring script-text charts and bulletin material may have had its inception in a reader story. The possibilities of relating script text and subject-matter units in science, social studies, and literature are virtually unlimited. Lesson sheets based on textbook lessons, check tests, and supplementary exercises for reading practice can be prepared. Assignment charts are made for small groups within the class.

SCRIPT TEXT ABOVE THE PRIMARY GRADES

Flexibility of script text.—Through the use of script text, the upper-grade

⁹ Lillian A. Lamoreaux and Dorris May Lee, *Learning To Read through Experience*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1943.

teacher becomes the author of some of the children's reading material. The text is not necessarily original but may be adapted from any source. It sometimes takes no more time to prepare this material than to search for something easy enough for an older child at his interest level.

For example, in the spring a fourth-grade class studied different types of birds. The teacher prepared script-text lessons on the robin, the bluebird, the cardinal, and the house wren, including with each sheet ten questions to be answered by the children. These selections were about four hundred words in length. All the material was duplicated on modern equipment, and copies were distributed to each child to be placed in a notebook. Again, a teacher who has located good bulletin material which is too difficult for most of an upper-grade to read independently can prepare a more readable version of the same topic.

Script text for slow learners.—Script text is a blessing for the slow learners who are stranded amidst an array of textbooks too difficult for them to read independently. Teacher-made materials can be constructed so as to keep reading on an interesting, meaningful level, related to topics that the pupils really want to learn about. Reading for these older slow children, as for the beginners, is more meaningful for them when it is "talk written down." For slow learners, as for beginners, there is decided value in the link that script text provides between reading and oral language, as well as the link

with the child's own interests and current experiences. There is double reinforcement in learning new words when slow learners write what they read, read what they write.

Another advantage is that the children cannot easily identify the precise reading level of the text prepared by the teacher. It may consist largely of easy words, but other clues that the pupil uses in judging and rejecting textbook materials are absent. Furthermore, the text is sure to be new to the pupil, nothing that has been tried before unsuccessfully.

One teacher concentrated on the Indian theme with upper-grade slow pupils, using her own devised script text to good effect. Another teacher used script text in developing the baseball theme with older slow boys. A junior high school science teacher, on learning about script text, exclaimed, "Just the thing for my slower boys who can read so little on science topics."

Script text for the handicapped and illiterate.—Script text is a boon to the teacher of the handicapped: the deaf, the mentally retarded, the adult illiterate. The young deaf pupils can have in their script text precisely the words they are learning in lip reading. There is complete identity between comprehension of spoken language through lip reading and reading the printed page. Adult illiterates, too, can have their own language given back to them in simplified version in script text lessons without having to use "baby" books.

TEACHER JUDGMENT OF PUPIL INTELLIGENCE AND ACHIEVEMENT IS NOT ENOUGH

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THE INTEREST shown by teachers in problems that concern adapting classroom activities to the individual needs of pupils is to be commended. What they may not realize, however, is that their ideas are likely to be predicated upon two assumptions, both of which may be difficult to justify. The first assumption is that teachers are able to determine, subjectively, the capacity of pupils to achieve. The second is that teachers can be rather certain of the extent to which pupils are achieving to capacity.

The writer was somewhat skeptical of these apparent assumptions by teachers. Hence, as one phase of a more comprehensive study relating to the problem of differentiating instruction in the elementary school, he set out to appraise teacher judgment of pupil intelligence and of pupil achievement in relation to capacity to achieve. One of the basic assumptions of this study was that, when other hindering factors are not present, the mental age of the pupil should be indicative of his capacity to achieve. This point of view is held by a number of writers. Kirk, for example, states, "Although mental age is not a

perfect indicator of the capacity to read, it is probably the best single indicator of capacity that we now have."¹

PROCEDURE USED IN THE STUDY

Included in the study were thirty-five teachers in Grades III-VIII in the four-year high-school districts of Lawrence County, Missouri. Fifty per cent of these teachers had completed 120 hours of college training, and the median experience of the group was twelve years. The study was made about the middle of the second semester of the school year 1948-49; therefore the teachers had had six months or more to get acquainted with their pupils.

The study was begun by placing in the hands of teachers three prepared forms: Pupil Data Forms A, B, and C. On Form A teachers were asked to list, in order, the five pupils who, in their opinion, were the most intelligent and the five who were the least intelligent in their respective groups. On Form B teachers were asked to list

¹ Samuel A. Kirk, *Teaching Reading to Slow Learning Children*, p. 28. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940.

the five pupils in each of their respective groups who, in their opinion, were working most nearly up to capacity in each of the skill areas of reading, language, spelling, and arithmetic. On Form C teachers were asked to list the five pupils in their respective groups who, in their opinion, were achieving farthest below capacity in each of the skill areas listed above.

After the teachers had completed the forms, standard tests were administered to the pupils included in the study. The California Test of Mental Maturity was used to measure intelligence and the Stanford Achievement Tests were used to evaluate achievement in reading, language, spelling, and arithmetic. Complete mental-test data were obtained for 1,030 pupils, while both intelligence and achievement-test data were obtained for 978 pupils.

Achievement, as indicated by the pupil's performance on the Stanford Achievement Tests, was evaluated in terms of deviations from the grade norm and from the mental age. A master-sheet was prepared for the group of pupils rated by each teacher included in the study. Upon these master-sheets were recorded the names of pupils and their achievement ages (in months) in each of the skill areas of reading, language, spelling, and arithmetic. The respective achievement ages of each pupil for the different skill areas were then compared with his mental age and with the age norm for his grade in order to determine the deviation of his achievement

age from his mental age and from the age norm in each area. These deviations were recorded in additional columns of the master-sheet as positive and negative numbers, above and below the grade norm and the mental age.

Thus, those pupils in the group with the greatest positive numbers were considered the highest achievers; those with the greatest negative numbers, the lowest achievers. From these deviation columns were selected the five highest and the five lowest achievers in each group in relation to mental capacity. These selections were then compared with the teacher's listings on Pupil Data Forms B and C in order to determine the per cent of agreement. Stated another way, the idea was to determine the extent to which pupils who were selected by teachers as highest and lowest achievers in relation to mental capacity would tend to be similarly classified by objective-test data.

INTELLIGENCE RATINGS

The results obtained when teachers' selections of the five pupils whom they believed to be highest and the five they believed to be lowest in intelligence were compared with the data obtained by the California Test of Mental Maturity are presented in Table 1. It will be noted that 199 pupils were selected for high intelligence, while 185 pupils were selected for low intelligence. Of the 199 pupils who were considered by their teachers to be among the five highest in intelli-

gence in their respective groups, only 114, or 57.3 per cent, were found to be so classified by objective-test results. The data in the table indicate that teachers were correct in their selections of pupils of highest and lowest intelligence about 58 per cent of the time. These results are in close agreement with a study by Lewis² of teacher judgment of children who fell within the upper 10 per cent of the group in intelligence. He found teacher

TABLE 1

AGREEMENT BETWEEN OBJECTIVE-TEST RESULTS AND TEACHERS' SELECTIONS OF PUPILS OF HIGHEST AND LOWEST INTELLIGENCE

INTELLIGENCE GROUP	NUMBER OF PUPILS SELECTED BY TEACHERS	PUPILS CLASSIFIED BY TEST	
		Number	Per Cent
Highest.....	199	114	57.3
Lowest.....	185	107	57.8
Total.....	384	221	57.6

judgment to agree with objective-test results 57 per cent of the time.

RATINGS OF ACHIEVEMENT IN RELATION TO MENTAL CAPACITY

Listings of pupils by teachers as highest and lowest achievers, as they agree with objective-test results, are summarized in Table 2. There are two reasons for the variation in number of selections by subjects. (1) No

²W. D. Lewis, "Some Characteristics of Children Designated as Mentally Retarded, as Problems, and as Geniuses by Teachers," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXX (March, 1947), 29-51.

language test was administered to third-grade pupils. (2) In each area, if complete test data were not available for a pupil listed by a teacher, his name was omitted from the list.

It will be observed from Table 2 that, while a total of 623 selections of highest achievers in all the subjects were considered, only 162, or 26 per

TABLE 2

AGREEMENT BETWEEN OBJECTIVE-TEST RESULTS AND TEACHERS' SELECTIONS OF HIGHEST AND LOWEST ACHIEVERS IN RELATION TO MENTAL CAPACITY IN FIVE SUBJECT AREAS

SUBJECT	NUMBER OF PUPILS SELECTED BY TEACHERS	PUPILS RATED BY TEST	
		Number	Per Cent
Highest achievers:			
Reading.....	166	35	21.1
Language.....	138	41	29.7
Spelling.....	160	49	30.6
Arithmetic.....	159	37	23.3
Total.....	623	162	26.0
Lowest achievers:			
Reading.....	151	44	29.1
Language.....	130	26	20.0
Spelling.....	160	39	24.4
Arithmetic.....	159	35	22.0
Total.....	600	144	24.0

cent, of them were in agreement with objective-test results. Agreement in the different areas varied from 21.1 per cent in reading to 30.6 per cent in spelling.

Of the 600 pupils selected by teachers to be among the five lowest in their respective groups in achievement in relation to mental capacity, only 144, or 24 per cent, were so classified by objective-test results. While this is

slightly less than the agreement reported in the selection of highest achievers, the difference does not appear to be significantly great. The disturbing fact is that, for both high and low achievers, agreement of teachers' selections with objective-test results was extremely low.

RATINGS ACCORDING TO GRADE NORMS

Even though careful and specific instructions had been given the respondents as to the manner in which selections of pupils were to be made, the writer wished to know whether the rank of pupils in their respective groups had not materially influenced teachers' judgments. Reference was again made to the master-sheets, from which were selected the five highest and the five lowest achievers in each group with respect to the grade norm. These selections were then compared with the listings of teachers on Pupil Data Forms B and C to determine the per cent of agreement. The results are summarized in Table 3, in which teachers' selections of highest and lowest achievers in relation to mental capacity are compared with highest and lowest achievers with respect to grade norms as determined by objective tests.

Viewed in this respect, teachers' selections were found to be much more in agreement with objective-test results than in the previous comparisons. It will be noted that, whereas, only 162, or 26 per cent, of the selections of highest achievers were in agreement with objective tests in the

analysis presented in Table 2, 264 selections, or 42.4 per cent, were in agreement when compared with test norms for the grade. In other words, even though teachers endeavored to select highest achievers in relation to mental capacity, their selections were 16.4 percentage points more in agreement with the test ratings of highest

TABLE 3
AGREEMENT BETWEEN TEACHERS' SELECTIONS OF HIGHEST AND LOWEST ACHIEVERS IN RELATION TO MENTAL CAPACITY AND PLACEMENT OF SAME PUPILS IN TERMS OF GRADE NORMS

SUBJECT	NUMBER OF PUPILS SELECTED BY TEACHERS	PUPILS PLACED BY TEST	
		Num- ber	Per Cent
Highest achievers:			
Reading.....	166	72	43.4
Language.....	138	54	39.1
Spelling.....	160	73	45.6
Arithmetic.....	159	65	40.9
Total.....	623	264	42.4
Lowest achievers:			
Reading.....	151	48	31.8
Language.....	130	47	36.2
Spelling.....	160	62	38.8
Arithmetic.....	159	48	30.2
Total.....	600	205	34.2

achievers with respect to grade norms. That is, teachers' judgments of what might be termed satisfactory achievement in terms of individual capacity appeared to be based primarily upon the rank of pupils in the group.

Table 3 also shows the agreement of teachers' selections of lowest achievers in relation to mental capacity with lowest achievers with respect to published test norms for the grade. Again,

a decided increase is found in the per cent of agreement of the teachers' selections with objective-test results. In Table 2 it was observed that only 144, or 24.0 per cent, of the teachers' 600 selections of lowest achievers were in agreement with findings of the objective tests. Table 3 shows, however, that, when these selections are compared with published test norms for the grade, the number in agreement jumps to 205, or 34.2 per cent. Stated another way, while only 24 per cent of the pupils selected by teachers as the lowest achievers in relation to mental capacity were so rated by the objective-test data, 34.2 per cent of the low achievers selected by teachers were among the five lowest in their groups in terms of grade norms on the tests. Thus, again, the status of pupils in the group appeared to influence teacher judgment materially.

CONCLUSIONS AND EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

While it may be argued that the number of teachers involved in this study is insufficient for valid conclusions, certain facts invest the findings with more validity than appears on the surface. Even though only thirty-five teachers were considered, the opinions expressed by them in regard to pupil intelligence and achievement were numerous. The typical teacher of the group, too, was one with four years of college training and twelve years of teaching experience—hence a person of supposedly mature judgment. Moreover, while no studies of teacher judgment of pupil achieve-

ment in relation to mental capacity could be found in the literature, findings of the present study of teacher judgment of pupil intelligence correspond closely to earlier studies.

It was noted that teachers were consistently low in their ability to select highest and lowest achievers in relation to mental capacity—26 per cent with highest achievers and 24 per cent with lowest achievers. It was also observed that the agreement of teachers' selections with objective-test results was consistently higher when their selections were compared with the pupils who actually ranked highest and lowest in the group in terms of test norms for the respective grades. That this could have "just happened" is hardly conceivable. It is believed, therefore, that the following conclusions concerning teacher judgment of pupil intelligence and of pupil achievement in relation to mental capacity are adequately supported.

1. Teachers may be expected to be correct in their judgment of pupils of highest and lowest intelligence in the group slightly less than 60 per cent of the time.

2. Teachers may be expected to be correct in their selections of pupils who are achieving highest and lowest in the group in relation to mental capacity about one-fourth of the time.

3. Even when teachers attempt to appraise subjectively the achievement of pupils in relation to mental capacity, they are likely to be influenced by the rank of pupils in the group.

A review of the data leads to the following significant implications.

In the first place, it is generally agreed that a thorough knowledge of all pupils in the group is indispensable to good teaching. Among other things, this implies a knowledge of pupil capacity to achieve and of achievement in relation to such capacity. Since teacher judgment is likely to be inaccurate more than two-fifths of the time in the first respect and approximately three-fourths of the time in the latter respect, more objective measures must be relied on. Teachers must, therefore, be proficient in the selection and administration of objective tests of mental ability and of achievement and must be discerning in the interpretation and use of the data. Thus, for teachers who are still in training, there must be a course in tests and measurements that is more than "theory." This course must be made as realistic as possible by means of a laboratory situation in which student teachers experience problems similar to those often encountered on the job.

A second implication of this study would seem to be that, since teachers' decisions concerning such problems as grouping and reporting cannot always wait for objective measures, their training must help them to recognize the characteristics of bright and slow children. Furthermore, teachers must make adequate provision for differentiation of activities and instruction in the classroom in order to insure a challenge for all pupils regardless of the level of their mental capacity or achievement. This can be possible only if teachers have a clear concept of what is meant by "differentiation"

of instruction and of how it can be realized through the use of various materials, methods, and techniques for the enrichment of the instructional program. Teacher-training institutions must assume responsibility for those teachers still in school, but the in-service training program must help many who are already teaching.

A final and rather significant implication of the findings of this study is related to the problems of marking and reporting. Without presuming to appraise the various types of marking systems, one must admit that teacher judgment is a more or less significant factor in all of them. This factor is particularly important in a system that purports to evaluate pupil progress in relation to individual capacity. However desirable it may be to rate pupils in relation to their capacity rather than to compare them with one another, one can readily see that this can also be an unfair system, because teacher judgment is likely to be very inaccurate. There is little doubt that the "Satisfactory-Unsatisfactory" marking system can be just as undesirable as any other if it is not administered with the greatest of care. It would seem, therefore, that at least two major precautions must be taken. (1) The major emphasis must be placed on a more effective type of teaching and learning situation rather than on "marking" as an incentive for achievement. (2) In all records and reports concerned with an evaluation of pupil capacity and achievement, teacher judgment must be adequately supported by objective data.

IMPROVING ARITHMETIC SKILLS BY TESTING AND RETEACHING

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FOUR DIAGNOSTIC TESTS in arithmetic are being used in the San Diego city schools: one in addition, one in subtraction, one in multiplication, and one in division. Practice sheets prepared by teachers in the school system are being used in connection with the tests. This article reports a study of the effectiveness of these tests and materials in discovering and eliminating errors in arithmetic. For the sake of brevity only one type of error will be considered, namely, the type of error caused by lack of understanding of zero in multiplication.

PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY

The diagnostic tests were given in September by teachers all over the city. The writer, a teacher-consultant in arithmetic, obtained permission to utilize sets of tests given in the sixth-grade classes. The sixth-grade level was chosen because eighteen of the twenty-two test items included in this study had been taught before that level and the others would be taught early in Grade VI. Thus the diagnostic test should locate weaknesses and the practice sheets should correct them.

Since all classes in the San Diego city schools are heterogeneous, a sampling of 500 cases, roughly 10 per cent of the sixth-grade enrolment, was considered adequate. Actually, there were 517 cases from 15 classes. The classes were not selected altogether at random, because the writer wished to use sets of papers from different socioeconomic levels. The papers included a set from a federal housing area, a set from a section with a predominately foreign-born population, one from a Navy residence area, one from a high-income district, one from a school district in a beach vacation area, and one from a village lately incorporated into the city. The other nine of the fifteen classes were chosen at random.

The teachers of the classes were not told what was being studied. There was no specific supervision for teaching zero in multiplication. The teachers gave all four diagnostic tests and retaught whatever was needed by each class and by individual children. This study, therefore, shows only what happened as a result of a general program of diagnosis, reteaching, retesting, and maintenance of skills. There was no intensive reteaching and

retesting of the zero difficulty in multiplication. The diagnostic test was repeated in February.

ANALYSIS OF ERRORS

The examples used in the multiplication test are shown in the accom-

ARITHMETIC DIAGNOSTIC TEST Multiplication of Whole Numbers

1a)	$\begin{array}{r} 74 \\ 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$	2a)	$\begin{array}{r} 17 \\ 2 \\ \hline \end{array}$	3a)	$\begin{array}{r} 943 \\ 3 \\ \hline \end{array}$	4a)	$\begin{array}{r} 646 \\ 3 \\ \hline \end{array}$
1b)	$\begin{array}{r} 70 \\ 3 \\ \hline \end{array}$	2b)	$\begin{array}{r} 65 \\ 3 \\ \hline \end{array}$	3b)	$\begin{array}{r} 670 \\ 4 \\ \hline \end{array}$	4b)	$\begin{array}{r} 185 \\ 2 \\ \hline \end{array}$
1c)	$\begin{array}{r} 903 \\ 3 \\ \hline \end{array}$	2c)	$\begin{array}{r} 316 \\ 4 \\ \hline \end{array}$	3c)	$\begin{array}{r} 852 \\ 4 \\ \hline \end{array}$	4c)	$\begin{array}{r} 325 \\ 4 \\ \hline \end{array}$
1d)	$\begin{array}{r} 800 \\ 2 \\ \hline \end{array}$			3d)	$\begin{array}{r} 650 \\ 2 \\ \hline \end{array}$		
.							
5a)	$\begin{array}{r} 22 \\ 31 \\ \hline \end{array}$	6a)	$\begin{array}{r} 714 \\ 22 \\ \hline \end{array}$	7a)	$\begin{array}{r} 212 \\ 234 \\ \hline \end{array}$	8a)	$\begin{array}{r} 4132 \\ 2312 \\ \hline \end{array}$
5b)	$\begin{array}{r} 74 \\ 46 \\ \hline \end{array}$	6b)	$\begin{array}{r} 568 \\ 58 \\ \hline \end{array}$	7b)	$\begin{array}{r} 378 \\ 643 \\ \hline \end{array}$	8b)	$\begin{array}{r} 9876 \\ 6789 \\ \hline \end{array}$
5c)	$\begin{array}{r} 35 \\ 50 \\ \hline \end{array}$	6c)	$\begin{array}{r} 670 \\ 74 \\ \hline \end{array}$	7c)	$\begin{array}{r} 200 \\ 700 \\ \hline \end{array}$	8c)	$\begin{array}{r} 7432 \\ 2000 \\ \hline \end{array}$
5d)	$\begin{array}{r} 90 \\ 32 \\ \hline \end{array}$	6d)	$\begin{array}{r} 908 \\ 68 \\ \hline \end{array}$			8d)	$\begin{array}{r} 7050 \\ 97 \\ \hline \end{array}$
5e)	$\begin{array}{r} 80 \\ 50 \\ \hline \end{array}$	6e)	$\begin{array}{r} 600 \\ 49 \\ \hline \end{array}$			8e)	$\begin{array}{r} 8009 \\ 764 \\ \hline \end{array}$
		6f)	$\begin{array}{r} 137 \\ 40 \\ \hline \end{array}$				
		6g)	$\begin{array}{r} 680 \\ 80 \\ \hline \end{array}$				
		6h)	$\begin{array}{r} 509 \\ 60 \\ \hline \end{array}$				
		6i)	$\begin{array}{r} 400 \\ 80 \\ \hline \end{array}$				

panying list. The September tests were analyzed to determine the causes of the errors. Only errors caused by zero were tabulated. Omissions were not counted. The errors were classified according to the number of the type on the diagnostic test.

When the February tests were received, the papers of the children who made errors in September were checked first to see whether their original mistakes had been eliminated and whether they had made any new errors. Then the rest of the papers were checked for new errors.

On the September test there were relatively few errors of Types 1b through 4c. These types included only 4.3 per cent of the total errors and were scattered enough to appear accidental or careless.

Type 5c, however, showed 7 per cent of the total errors. The zero in the multiplier caused a lot of trouble. Multiplying by one instead of zero accounted for most of the errors. Some of the methods by which children got wrong answers to Type 5c are listed below:

$\begin{array}{r} 35 \\ \times 50 \\ \hline \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 35 \\ \times 50 \\ \hline \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 35 \\ \times 50 \\ \hline \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 35 \\ \times 50 \\ \hline \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 35 \\ \times 50 \\ \hline \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 35 \\ \times 50 \\ \hline \end{array}$
$\begin{array}{r} 35 \\ 175 \\ \hline \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 175 \\ \hline \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 1755 \\ \hline \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 17500 \\ \hline \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 55 \\ 175 \\ \hline \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 00 \\ 175 \\ \hline \end{array}$

These wrong solutions show not only that the children had not formed the generalization that zero times a number is zero but also that they did not clearly understand the number system.

Type 5d, with 5.3 per cent of the total errors, presented similar difficulties. Following are examples of mistakes made:

$\begin{array}{r} 90 \\ \times 32 \\ \hline 272 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 90 \\ \times 32 \\ \hline 180 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 90 \\ \times 32 \\ \hline 270 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 90 \\ \times 32 \\ \hline 2700 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 90 \\ \times 32 \\ \hline 00 \\ 270 \end{array}$
--	--	--	---	--

In this case the children did not know what to do with the 2, the 3, or the zero.

Type 5e combined the difficulties of Types 5c and 5d and accounted for 7.3 per cent of the errors. Illustrations of errors are:

$\begin{array}{r} 80 \\ \times 50 \\ \hline 4080 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 80 \\ \times 50 \\ \hline 400 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 80 \\ \times 50 \\ \hline 80 \\ 400 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 80 \\ \times 50 \\ \hline 00 \end{array}$
---	--	--	---

Type 6c, with only 3.8 per cent, had fewer errors than examples with zero in the multiplier. With the zero in the units' place in the multiplicand, such mistakes as the following were made:

$\begin{array}{r} 670 \\ \times 74 \\ \hline 46,900 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 670 \\ \times 74 \\ \hline 2684 \\ 4697 \end{array}$
--	--

It is interesting to note that this type did not cause as much trouble as Type 5d although the only difference between the two types is that Type 6c has a figure in the hundreds' place of the multiplicand.

Type 6d with zero in the ten's place of the multiplicand had 5.6 per cent of the errors. In general, this type did not cause much trouble. There were 51 errors in all, but 11 of them were in

one class. Following are illustrations of the errors:

$\begin{array}{r} 908 \\ \times 68 \\ \hline 7344 \\ 55080 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 908 \\ \times 68 \\ \hline 7204 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 908 \\ \times 68 \\ \hline 7604 \\ 5808 \end{array}$
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Children having trouble with this type and with Type 8d had general trouble throughout the test.

Type 6e had only 40 errors, 4.4 per cent of the total. Some children managed to get the example wrong in the following ways:

$\begin{array}{r} 600 \\ \times 49 \\ \hline 2400 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 600 \\ \times 49 \\ \hline 5600 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 600 \\ \times 49 \\ \hline 540 \\ 240 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 600 \\ \times 49 \\ \hline 5400 \\ 2400 \end{array}$
--	--	--	--

Type 6f, including 6.5 per cent of the errors, showed confusion of the zero and the one, with variations as follows:

$\begin{array}{r} 137 \\ \times 40 \\ \hline 5480 \\ 548 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 137 \\ \times 40 \\ \hline 548 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 137 \\ \times 40 \\ \hline 137 \\ 548 \end{array}$
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Type 6g accounted for 7.8 per cent of the errors. Examples of the mistakes follow:

$\begin{array}{r} 680 \\ \times 80 \\ \hline 5440 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 680 \\ \times 80 \\ \hline 6400 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 680 \\ \times 80 \\ \hline 4,960,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 680 \\ \times 80 \\ \hline 1240 \end{array}$
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Type 6h, with 9.8 per cent of the errors, produced a great variation of errors because there are zeros in different positions in the multiplicand and the multiplier. Eight illustrations appear below:

$\begin{array}{r} 509 \\ \times 60 \\ \hline 6140 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 509 \\ \times 60 \\ \hline 000 \\ 304 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 509 \\ \times 60 \\ \hline 000 \\ 3004 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 509 \\ \times 60 \\ \hline 3,054,000 \end{array}$
$\begin{array}{r} 509 \\ \times 60 \\ \hline 000 \\ 3060 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 509 \\ \times 60 \\ \hline 3540 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 509 \\ \times 60 \\ \hline 3004 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 509 \\ \times 60 \\ \hline 30040 \end{array}$

Type 6i included 7.1 per cent of the errors. Variations are indicated by the following cases:

$\begin{array}{r} 400 \\ \times 80 \\ \hline 3200 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 400 \\ \times 80 \\ \hline 3200 \\ 3200 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 400 \\ \times 80 \\ \hline 480000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 400 \\ \times 80 \\ \hline 400 \\ 3200 \end{array}$
--	--	--	---

Type 7c included the most errors of all, 10.8 per cent. The errors are the same as those found in other types; there were just more of them. Examples of mistakes are:

$\begin{array}{r} 200 \\ \times 700 \\ \hline 1400 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 200 \\ \times 700 \\ \hline 14,000,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 200 \\ \times 700 \\ \hline 0 \\ 1400 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 200 \\ \times 700 \\ \hline 14000 \end{array}$
---	---	--	--

Type 8c accounted for almost as many errors as type 7c, 9.0 per cent, but the actual errors were different and rather extreme. The commonest were:

$\begin{array}{r} 7432 \\ \times 2000 \\ \hline 14,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 7432 \\ \times 2000 \\ \hline 7432 \\ 7432 \\ 7432 \\ 14764 \end{array}$
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Types 8d and 8e included 4.5 per cent and 6.8 per cent of the errors. These two types were often omitted by children making many errors in other types. The most frequent errors

of these two types were leaving out a partial product and putting in extra zeros.

$\begin{array}{r} 7050 \\ \times 97 \\ \hline 49,350 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 8009 \\ \times 764 \\ \hline 32036 \\ 56054 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 8009 \\ \times 746 \\ \hline 320036 \\ 480054 \\ 560063 \end{array}$
---	--	--

The two most important causes of error were multiplying by one instead of zero and lack of understanding of the number system. Next in importance was a lack of understanding of carrying, which, is of course, part of the number-system concept. In the following example this special multiplication difficulty caused a lot of confusion.

$\begin{array}{r} 908 \\ \times 68 \\ \hline 7604 \\ 5808 \end{array}$	<p>The child apparently said: "8 times 8 is 64. Put down 4. Bring down 0. 8 times 9 is 72, carry 4 equals 76."</p> <p>This kind of mistake was repeated exactly in multiplying by 60 except that the right number was carried.</p>
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Another sort of confusion was evident in the mistakes of many children who wrote too many or too few zeros in their answers.

METHOD OF TEACHING USED

After giving the September diagnostic test, each teacher recorded the results on a class record sheet. The children's papers were arranged as a "power" list, those with the least errors first and those having the most errors last. This arrangement automatically divided the class into groups. Sometimes a set of errors appeared across the whole chart showing that the whole class was weak in certain types of examples. For all the children having difficulties there was specific

reteaching and retesting. For those who made no errors or very few errors there was a small amount of maintenance drill only.

As each review lesson was taught, the children were given lesson sheets for independent practice. The numbers of the examples on the diagnostic test appear on the lesson sheets so that the teacher can easily select exactly the right material for the right child. These practice sheets are followed by test sheets that check the relearning.

As soon as the children were reasonably sure of the fifth-grade work, the teacher helped them apply their knowledge of multiplying by two figures to multiplying by three figures. Still later in the year the children learned to multiply by four figures. Widely spaced through the practice material are lesson sheets and tests that maintain the skills already learned and provide practice in the new skills.

The actual reteaching naturally varied somewhat because no two teachers use exactly the same vocabulary and because most teachers adjust their teaching to the needs of individual children. In reteaching the number system, the teachers used pocket charts for ones, tens, and hundreds; sticks arranged in ones, bundles of ten, bundles of one hundred, and sometimes bundles of one thousand. The sticks illustrated the size of the numbers; the charts, the positional values of the numbers. The teachers used this device for teaching the number system by having the children build numbers on it. For example, the number 708

when built on the number chart would include seven bundles of 100 placed in the pocket for hundreds, no tens in the tens' pocket, and eight ones in the ones' pocket. If necessary, the teachers even retaught in this way the numbers below 100.

The knowledge of the number system was used and extended in reteaching multiplication. Since difficulty on the test usually began with Type 5a, where two-figure multiplication occurred for the first time, it was necessary to reteach two-figure multiplication. The first step was to teach multiplying by ten. One way to do this follows:

Ask ten children to stand in a row. Put an example such as 24 on the blackboard.

$$\begin{array}{r} 24 \\ \times 10 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Ask the children how many sticks each of the ten children should hold (2 tens and 4 ones). Have all ten children put their ones together. Ask, "How many ones are there?" 40 ones.

"What can we make of the 40 ones?" 4 tens.

Have the children put all their tens together.

"How many tens are there?" 20 tens.

"What can we make of the 20 tens?" 2 hundreds.

Put the 2 hundreds and the 4 tens in the pockets of the number chart. "What number is this?" 240.

"Look at the example on the blackboard and see if we can work it with numbers instead of sticks." The children will probably say:

$$\begin{array}{r} 24 \\ \times 10 \\ \hline 40 \text{ (10 times 4 ones)} \\ + 200 \text{ (10 times 2 tens)} \\ \hline 240 \end{array}$$

After several similar examples have been worked with numbers, some child will notice that ten times a number is always the number with zero added and that the numbers all move one place to the left. This is a further broadening of the understanding of the number system, which must be acquired to know the meaning of multiplication.

Then go into multiplying by 20, 30, 40, and so on. It may be necessary to go back and use sticks again as explained above, but most sixth-graders will not need this. However, if necessary, it should be done because many slow-learning children who did not understand the number system when it was originally presented in Grades II and III will understand it in Grade VI.

The children should now be able to do examples like Type 5c

$$\begin{array}{r} 35 \\ \times 50 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

and should have supervised practice until they are sure and then independent practice using practice sheets. The next step is the working of examples like Type 5a.

Lead children to discover that the answer to the problem 22 is the sum of 22×1

$$\begin{array}{r} 22 \\ \times 31 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

and 22×30 . The original computation will be:

$$\begin{array}{r} 22 \\ \times 31 \\ \hline 22 \\ 660 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

The zero in the second partial product can be retained as long as the teacher thinks necessary but should be discarded eventually.

As other types are retaught, have the children use their expanding knowledge of the number system in the original relearning.

In reteaching the concept that zero times a number is always zero, most teachers used some sort of social situation to help the children make the generalization. Some suggestions follow:

Game scores are good illustrations. In a game, no matter how many turns a child gets, he still has a zero score if he makes zero each time he plays. This illustrates $N \times 0 = 0$.

Another social situation could be putting money in a bank. If a child decides to save his money for a week, but instead spends his money for candy each day and fails to put any money in his bank, he will have $7 \times 0 = 0$ in his bank at the end of the week.

To be even more concrete, ask a child to hold out his hand. Pretend to put a piece of chalk in his hand. Ask him what you gave him. He will say, "Nothing." Do this many times and ask him each time what he has. Each time say, "I gave you nothing ——— times. How much is ——— times zero?"

If he still confuses one with zero, do the same thing giving one piece of chalk each time.

The problem of reteaching the process of carrying is really part of developing an understanding of the number system and should be originally taught with the number system and addition. When children learn the multiplication fact $6 \times 7 = 42$, they also learn that $6 \times 7 = 4$ tens and 2 ones. In doing an example like

$$\begin{array}{r} 67 \\ \times 6 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

they say, "6 times 7 is 42. This is 4 tens and 2 ones. Put 2 ones in the ones'

column and keep the 4 tens in your head because there are going to be more tens. Six times 6 tens is 36 tens. Add 4 tens to 36 tens. That makes 40 tens. Put the zero in the tens' column and the four in the hundreds' column." Drill exercises made up of examples such as $6 \times 8 + 4 =$ are also necessary and help in the difficult understanding of bridging tens.

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF CHILDREN MAKING ERRORS
IN SEPTEMBER AND FEBRUARY ON
TEST OF MULTIPLICATION

NUMBER OF ERRORS	NUMBER OF CHILDREN	
	September Test	February Test
0.....	260	410
1-2.....	149	54
3-4.....	41	8
5-6.....	24	5
7-8.....	18	5
9 or more.....	25	7
Total.....	517	489*

*Twenty-eight children had dropped out of school before the February test was given.

The diagnostic tests were given again in February. Sometimes children who worked an example correctly on the September test did it wrong on the February test. Other children who had done little on the September test finished the February test, making new errors on the harder examples not previously attempted. In rare instances, the same errors were repeated in February. The teacher recorded these errors on the same record sheet and immediately formed a group of children who were retaught and retested again. If the teacher thought it worth while,

the tests were given again in June and the necessary reteaching was done.

RESULTS ON FEBRUARY TEST

The February test showed that many errors had been eliminated, but that the proportions remained about the same. Type 7c was still the hardest example. In September there were 99 errors in Type 7c, 10.8 per cent of the total of 915 errors. In February there were 28 errors, 11.4 per cent of the total of 246 errors. In February there were only 6 errors in Types 1b through 4c—a fact which indicates that even the very weakest children among the 517 included in the study were able to do simple examples by February. These children were able to finish the February test, while many of them had been so confused in September that they gave up after trying a few easy examples. Their added effort resulted in many new errors in the more difficult types which were attempted in February.

There was considerable improvement in all types of examples. In the fifth-grade part of the test, Types 5c-6i, there were 570 errors in September and 155 in February—a reduction of 72.8 per cent. Types 7c-8e, the types taught as new work in Grade VI, accounted for 284 errors in September and 85 in February. These totals would be much different if omissions had been counted as errors in September. There was an improvement of 70.1 per cent in this group. The improvement for the whole test was 73.2 per cent.

Table 1 shows the distribution of

errors according to the number of children who made them. In September 260 made no errors. These children not only had done their fifth-grade work well but understood it well enough to transfer their knowledge to the sixth-grade part of the test and to do examples 7c through 8e perfectly. By February the number making no errors increased to 410 of the original 517 taking the test. The number of children making from 7 to 10 or more errors decreased from 43 to 12. In other words, only 12 children out of 517 were still making more than 7 errors.

In a city with a school population that shifts as rapidly as does that of San Diego, it is impossible to conduct a study without drop-outs. Twenty-eight children who took the September test left before February. These children made 67 errors that may or may not have been corrected. One of these children made 9 errors, one made 8, one made 4, and the rest fewer than 4. Therefore, of the 25 children making nine or more errors in September, only one left and only seven failed to learn how to handle zero.

ANALYSIS OF CLASSES

Table 2 shows the fifteen classes that were used in the study. The writer taught arithmetic for a week in some of these classes and noted at first hand the responses of the children. These personal observations cannot be shown on a table. Half of Class E, for example, had a fifth-grade teacher who failed and was discharged. Class E started with 69 errors and ended

with 1. Class I included five children with intelligence quotients from 65 to 75. Two of them were waiting for a chance to enter a special class for retarded children. Class J was a fifth-

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION, BY CLASS GROUPS, OF ERRORS MADE IN SEPTEMBER AND IN FEBRUARY ON TEST OF MULTIPLICATION

CLASS	NUMBER OF CHILDREN	NUMBER OF ERRORS ON TEST		DROP-OUTS	
		September	February	Number of Children	Number of Errors
A.....	29	91	21	3	12
B.....	40	27	0	1	1
C.....	31	13	2	2	2
D.....	32	89	34	3	7
E.....	33	69	1	3	16
F.....	43	35	7	8	17
G.....	37	33	5
H.....	37	48	15	3	6
I.....	35	106	40
J.....	23	26	2	1	1
K.....	35	61	29
L.....	38	80	19	2	3
M.....	36	93	27
N.....	30	85	21
O.....	38	59	23	2	2
Total...	517	915	246	28	67

and sixth-grade combination. Class K had a substitute teacher from November to February.

CONCLUSION

The method of using diagnostic tests, reteaching, and retesting proved to be a good method for helping most children improve their skill in multiplication. For the few children who were not helped by this method, we must devise other means of teaching. More than we did needs to be done for the latter group.

A NEW READABILITY FORMULA FOR PRIMARY- GRADE READING MATERIALS

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IN RECENT YEARS there has been considerable interest in, and use of, formulas for judging the reading difficulty of printed materials. Most of this interest has dated from the offering in 1943 of the original Flesch formula (4). This formula and the later studies of Dale and Chall (3) have been used extensively in the evaluation of industrial communications, books, magazines, and government publications. A recent summary of articles and books dealing with readability studies lists over ninety-six publications on this topic in 1943-50 (5).

An examination of these formulas and studies reveals that the interest has been focused largely on the evaluation of materials written for adults. None of the three leading formulas—the Flesch (4), the Lorge (7), or the Dale-Chall (3)—is applicable to materials written for individuals reading on levels below Grade IV. Other formulas, such as the Lewerenz (6) or Wilkinson (9) are available for evaluating primary materials, but, in the author's opinion, these are lengthy and cumbersome. Because of the obvious values in having objective measures of reading difficulty, the author

and his co-workers have attempted to devise a formula that would be useful with primary-grade reading materials.

There are a number of elements which may be used to estimate reading difficulty. Among these are word length, sentence length, and per cent of personal words or personal sentences. In addition, the number of syllables, the number of affixes or of prepositional phrases, and the proportion of difficult words mentioned in various word lists have been used. Dale and Chall have reviewed the relation of these various elements to reading difficulty. They find that the best prediction of reading difficulty is obtained from the number of difficult words (those outside a list of 3,000 words known to 80 per cent of fourth-graders) and average sentence length. Two other elements of almost equal predictive value are the number of affixes and the number of words outside the Dale list of 769 words (2). This is a list of the words found both in the International Kindergarten Union list (1) and the first 1,000 words of Thorndike and Lorge's *Teacher's Word Book* (8).

The author and his co-workers have

followed the example of Dale and Chall in choosing average sentence length as a predictive measure. In addition, we employ the Dale list of 769 words, judging all words outside this list as hard words. The two other elements which, according to the evidence of Lorge, Flesch, or Dale and Chall, might have been employed were the number of affixes or the Dale list of 3,000 words. In our opinion, the simplicity of the vocabulary found in primary-grade reading materials makes both of these measures inappropriate.

We secured 224 samples of 100 words each from 152 books in common use in the first three grades. Except for 23 social-science, health, and science books, these were textbooks used for basal reading instruction. We assigned a grade level to each book according to the level of its classroom use. Thus, preprimers were designated 1.2; primers, 1.5; first readers, 1.8; second readers, 2.1; and third readers, 3.3. Where two or three books were offered for a grade level, the second-level books were graded 1.9, 2.4, 2.7, and 3.7, respectively. The labor necessary for determining the facts concerning each book was done by two graduate students, Richard Hazen and Barbara Davis Thomas. The intercorrelations of these elements of reading difficulty and the grade levels assigned to the reading materials are presented in Table 1.

The multiple-correlation coefficient obtained by combining sentence length and per cent of hard words to

predict grade level of textbooks is .818. The accuracy with which these two elements predict reading difficulty of primary-grade textbooks compares very favorably with the Dale-Chall multiple coefficient of .70 and with that of .7047 in the Flesch formula for "reading ease."

Our data differ from the findings of Lorge, Flesch, and Dale-Chall in indi-

TABLE 1
CORRELATIONS OF STYLE ELEMENTS AND
GRADE LEVEL OF TEXTBOOKS

	CORRELATION WITH—		MEAN	STAND- ARD DEVIA- TION
	Per Cent of Hard Words	Grade Level of Text- books		
Sentence length. . .	.563	.751	8.52	3.31
Per cent of hard words.683	5.24	3.76
Grade level of textbooks.	2.49	.86

cating that sentence length is slightly more closely related to reading difficulty than is the per cent of hard words. In the three other studies, the measure of vocabulary load was the most important factor in reading difficulty. Apparently, editors of material for primary reading materials exercise more control over sentence length than over the introduction of hard words. Above the primary grades, sentence length is less controlled and perhaps less significant in reading difficulty, since the child has acquired a modicum of reading skill.

A multiple regression equation may

be found from the interrelationships among sentence length, percent of hard words, and the grade level of the reading textbooks, as given in Table 1. Having found the relations of each of these three factors with one another, it is possible to formulate an equation which will tell what weighted combination of two factors may be used to predict the third factor with the greatest degree of accuracy. In this case, we are attempting to combine sentence length and per cent of hard words to predict the grade level or reading difficulty. This equation will tell us the readability of any primary-grade book or indicate the reading level when we have computed the average sentence length and the per cent of hard words.

For those who wish to use this readability formula, the complete regression equation is:

Grade level of textbook = .141 average sentence length per 100 words + .086 words outside the Dale "Easy Word List" of 769 words + .839.

In other words, multiply the average sentence length in a sample of 100 words by .141. Then multiply the per cent of words outside the Dale "Easy Word List" of 769 words by .086. To these two figures, add a constant, .839. The sum represents the estimated reading difficulty of the book. This will be a figure such as 2.267, which, when rounded off as 2.3, designates a book equal in difficulty to readers and school textbooks commonly used in the third month of Grade II. In using this formula, we make it a practice to

score at least three samples from a book and average these results for a more reliable estimate of the reading difficulty.

Certain rules guiding the word count were evolved as they appeared necessary. They are:

1. Count all letters as familiar—*A, B, C*.
2. Count regular verb forms (*-ing, -ed, -es*) as familiar. Count irregular verb forms as unfamiliar.
3. Count plurals and possessive endings of nouns as familiar.
4. Count adjectival or adverbial endings (*-ly, -er, -est*) as unfamiliar. (This differs from the Dale-Chall procedure but is supported by the fact that such endings do not appear except at higher levels in primary-grade materials.)
5. Count first names as familiar.
6. Count an unfamiliar word only once, even though it appears again or with variable endings later in the sample. (This rule was adopted to prevent a single hard word from distorting the estimation of grade level in primary-grade materials, which tend to be highly repetitive.)
7. Count a group of words, consisting of repetition of a single word (as *oh, oh, oh; look, look, look*) as a single sentence regardless of punctuation.

The author will be glad to supply a sample worksheet for applying the formula upon request. The user will also need the Dale list (3), which is obtainable from the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. The author and his co-workers have applied the formula to popular books, readers, and other primary-grade materials used in the University of Florida Reading Laboratory and Clinic. We find that the esti-

mates of reading difficulty by means of the formula agree markedly with our observations of children's reading performances and the observations of experienced classroom teachers.

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2. DALE, EDGAR. "A Comparison of Two Word Lists," *Educational Research Bulletin*, X (December 9, 1931), 484-89.
3. DALE, EDGAR, and CHALL, JEANNE S. "A Formula for Predicting Readability," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXVII (January 11 and February 17, 1948), 11-20, 37-54.
4. FLESCH, R. F. *Marks of Readable Style*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 897. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943.
5. HOTCHKISS, SANFORD N., and PATERSON, DONALD G. "Flesch Readability Reading List," *Personnel Psychology*, III (Autumn, 1950), 327-44.
6. LEWERENZ, ALFRED S. "A Vocabulary Grade Placement Formula," *Journal of Experimental Education*, III (March, 1935), 236.
7. LORGE, IRVING. "Predicting Readability," *Teachers College Record*, XLV (March, 1944), 404-19.
8. THORNDIKE, EDWARD L., and LORGE, IRVING. *The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944.
9. WILKINSON, M. S., WEEDON, V., and WASHBURN, CARLETON. *The Right Book for the Right Child*. New York: John Day & Co., 1936 (revised).

SELECTED REFERENCES ON KINDERGARTEN- PRIMARY EDUCATION

KINDERGARTEN-PRIMARY STAFF OF THE LABORATORY SCHOOL

University of Chicago

*

THIS BIBLIOGRAPHY includes materials for the year January 1, 1952, to January 1, 1953, with a few exceptions. Selections have been grouped according to their content under (1) general; (2) curriculum, learning experiences, and techniques; (3) parent-teacher-child relationships; (4) investigations and experimental studies; and (5) films.

GENERAL

118. CLAPP, ELSIE R. *The Use of Resources in Education*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. xvi+174.

Describes in an inspiring fashion the development of meaningful education for children and parents, based upon the study and use of environmental needs and materials. Two schools—a county school located in an agricultural area in Kentucky and a community school in a farming-mining region in West Virginia—are involved in the study.

119. *Dealing with Fear and Tension*. Reprint Service Bulletin No. 24. Washington: Association for Childhood Education International, 1952. Pp. 34.

Describes how many children have been helped to freer, easier living, for a time at least, when some of their fears and tensions have had a means of escape. Also includes a list of guiding ideas to help teachers think

through their own problems of responsibility for children's welfare.

120. HOPKINS, L. THOMAS. "Guiding Learning," *Childhood Education*, XXIX (September, 1952), 26-29.

Pointing out that "the basic dichotomy between teaching and learning in our schools arises because we teach children by external authoritarian methods which are the reverse of their internal biological growth and learning process," Hopkins poses the question of what can be done to reduce the gap between teaching and learning.

121. LOWENFELD, VIKTOR. *Creative and Mental Growth*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1952 (revised). Pp. 408.

A revised edition of a valuable book which adds material on the methods of how to analyze a work of art in order to understand the stages of growth of personality.

122. REDL, FRITZ, and WINEMAN, DAVID. *Children Who Hate*. Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1951. Pp. 254.

Explores behavior in children whose aggressiveness is so acute that it must be treated on a clinical basis. Analysis of detailed case studies of eight such eight- and nine-year-old children who lived together under careful adult supervision at the experimental Pioneer House in Detroit forms the backbone of the book. Investigates the causes of aggressiveness found at one time or another in all children and, in probing for the prerequisites for the prevention of

such extreme childhood disorganization, reveals some of the fundamentals necessary to good adjustment.

123. REED, HELEN I. "Guiding Learning in the Classroom," *Childhood Education*, XXIX (September, 1952), 30-32.

Reed reacts to the implications of Hopkins' article (No. 121 in this list of selected references), and makes some suggestions for school and classroom organization to reduce the gap between teaching and learning.

124. REINHART, MIRIAM. "Finding and Using Children's Real Selves," *Childhood Education*, XXVIII (January, 1952), 207-10.

Tells how such expressive techniques as play therapy, client-centered counseling, and sociodrama have been extended into classroom use for carrying out democratic practices, stimulating creative powers, and releasing tension. Written for all grade levels.

125. SORRENSEN, FRED S. *Speech for the Teacher*. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. xiv+470.

Treats speech, in its many forms, as a basic need for teachers, parents, and children, not only as a means of communication, but as an influence in personality development. Considers such forms of speech as conversation, the personal conference, discussion, story-telling, and oral reading. A book worth serious study.

CURRICULUM, LEARNING EXPERIENCES, AND TECHNIQUES¹

126. ADAMS, OLGA. *Children and the City*. Chicago: Published for [Six] Sponsoring

¹ See also Items 346 (Gans *et al.*) and 397 (Stephens) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*, and Items 434 (Dolch) and 449 (Smith) in the list appearing in the October, 1952, issue of the same journal.

Organizations by Reginald R. Isaacs (% Michael Reese Hospital Planning Staff), 1952. Pp. 28.

Describes the philosophy behind the teaching technique used in helping five-year-olds acquire an understanding of the immediate environment in which city children live. Includes evaluation of the technique as seen by the author and by an outstanding authority on city planning.

127. ALPENFELS, ETHEL J. "Anthropology—An Integrating Science for an Integrated World," *Childhood Education*, XXVIII (April, 1952), 341-44.

Describes how the contributions of anthropology are important for all those who work with children. A former elementary-school teacher, the author discusses three important implications for teachers growing out of the newest development in anthropological studies, the area project.

128. ARBUTHNOT, MAY HILL (compiler). *Time for Fairy Tales, Old and New*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1952. Pp. 402.

A collection of different types of fairy tales, such as folk tales, fables, myths, epics, and modern fanciful tales from all countries, with a description and analysis of each of these types by the compiler, as well as a helpful introductory discussion of the problems concerned with telling stories and reading aloud. Useful as reading material for older children but essentially planned for grown-ups to use with children of all ages.

129. BURROWS, ALVINA TREUT; FEREBEE, JUNE D.; JACKSON, DORIS C.; and SAUNDERS, DOROTHY O. *They All Want To Write: Written English in the Elementary School*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952 (revised). Pp. xvi+240.

Written by four teachers for other classroom teachers to help enhance their regard for children and realize their responsibility for helping pupils grow in creative expression. Records actual steps taken by teachers

in fostering creative writing and presents examples of children's compositions and poems. Emphasizes the development of each child in terms of his unique nature and needs.

130. "Child Development in the Kindergarten," *NEA Journal*, XLI (March, 1952), 160-62.

Shows by pictures with pointed captions some ways in which the kindergarten recognizes individual differences and helps the child to learn by doing. This is a presentation of the Department of Kindergarten-Primary Education of the National Education Association.

131. DURLAND, FRANCIS. *Creative Dramatics for Children*. Yellow Springs, Ohio: Antioch Press, 1952. Pp. 182.

A practical manual for teachers who are interested in developing experiences in creative dramatics with children. Contains a "working method that is clear, concise, and interesting."

132. *Experience Charts: A Guide to Their Use in Grades 1-3*. Prepared by a COMMITTEE OF THE DIVISION OF INSTRUCTIONAL RESEARCH. Educational Research Bulletin No. 13. Brooklyn 2: Board of Education of City of New York, 1952. Pp. vi+18.

Answers many questions asked by teachers "concerned about the use of charts in the primary grades and their relation to the reading program." Provides illustrative materials and examples which should suggest other uses to all teachers needing help in this field.

133. GANS, ROMA. "Reading and Personal Satisfaction," *Childhood Education*, XXIX (November, 1952), 132-33.

Points out that, because teachers and parents are so aware of the learning-to-read process, they often fail to note the personal satisfactions which come to very young readers and are basic to a child's wholesome growth as a reader.

134. GREENLEE, JULIAN (compiler). "Science Experiences Afford Opportunity," *Childhood Education*, XXIX (October, 1952), 77-84.

Reports from seven classroom teachers, compiled by a professor of biological and physical science, provide examples of ways in which teachers and children planned together, identified science problems, and worked them through to satisfactory conclusions. Emphasizes the importance of children's learning the use of the problem-solving pattern of thinking and doing in all kinds of human relations.

135. GRUENBERG, SIDONIE M. *The Wonderful Story of How You Were Born*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. 40.

The story of birth told factually for children. Follows the development of the embryo to birth and sketches the development of the individual to adulthood.

136. HARRISON, ELIZABETH. *Self-expression through Art*. Peoria, Illinois: Charles A. Bennett Co., Inc., 1951. Pp. viii+112.

Presents a comprehensive outline of how and what to teach in art at the various age levels. A book that any teacher could pick up and read with interest and profit.

137. JAY, EDITH SHERMAN. *A Book about Me*, pp. 32; *A Teacher's Manual for "A Book about Me,"* pp. 32. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952.

A workbook designed to help the teacher bridge the gap between home and school; to help the child establish pre-reading habits; and to serve as a convenient method for gathering data about the child's background, his maturity, intellectual ability, interests, and activities. Contains pictures only. (The way the workbook is to be used is interestingly described in the *Teacher's Manual*.) Should be useful in schools where the needed information is not available when school opens.

138. JOHNSON, IVAN E.; LARKIN, THOMAS; LAWRENCE, GRETA; and PENA, WIL-

LIAM M. "Children and Art," *Childhood Education*, XXIX (December, 1952), 179-86.

Writing on the topics, "More than Art Products," "What Do We Really Mean?" "Seen with the Heart" and "What a Good Color Environment Can Do," the four authors discuss the broader scope of the art-education program, long- and short-term goals in meeting children's needs in art for democratic citizenship, stimulating creative thought and activity, and a good color environment for children.

139. LANDECK, BEATRICE. *Children and Music*. New York: William Sloan Associates, 1952. Pp. 278.

A book written by an experienced teacher for parents. Emphasizes fun and creativity in various media in music. Some interesting chapter headings are: "Good Song Material," "Records and Keeping the Child Interested," "What To Expect of the School."

140. LEWIS, HOWARD C. *Children and Their Books*. New York: Exposition Press, 1952 (revised). Pp. 62.

Includes lessons in techniques of holding books, turning leaves, using bookmarks, taking books from shelves, carrying books, and getting new books ready to be used.

141. MACKINTOSH, HELEN K. *How Children Learn To Read*. Place of Subjects Series. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Bulletin 1952, No. 7. Pp. iv+16.

Describes "the teacher's part in the reading experiences children have and the ways parents can help in making the learning-to-read years of the child's life both happy and successful." Designed to explain how reading is taught to children now and to explain why and how methods have changed over the years.

142. MIEL, ALICE, and ASSOCIATES. *Cooperative Procedures in Learning*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teach-

ers College, Columbia University, 1952. Pp. x+512.

Analyzes the experiences of classroom teachers who "tried to develop more skill in working co-operatively with their pupils." Enumerates opportunities for co-operative procedures in the classroom and describes difficulties that teachers encounter in use of group procedures as a method of teaching.

143. *Music for Early Childhood*. New York: Silver Burdette Co., 1952.

A delightful collection of songs for young children gathered from many unusual sources. Many helpful comments for teachers are presented in an interesting manner.

144. WARD, WINIFRED. *Stories To Dramatize*. Anchorage, Kentucky: Children's Theatre Press, 1952. Pp. xii+390.

A collection of stories and poems, for children of ages five through fourteen, which can be used for creative dramatics. The first three chapters contain suggestions for dramatizing a story.

145. WRIGHT, ROSE H. *Fun and Festival from Africa*. New York: Friendship Press, 1952. Pp. 48.

A pamphlet of customs and festival traditions with ideas for program development. In addition to many specific ideas, there is an excellent bibliography for program resources.

PARENT-TEACHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS

146. BACMEISTER, RHODA W. *Your Children's Manners*. Better Living Booklet for Parents and Teachers. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. Pp. 50.

Discusses the development of the child's growth in relationship to a code of behavior and explains to parents how good manners naturally stem from friendliness and consideration of others.

147. BANNON, LAURA. *Mind Your Child's Art*. New York: Pellegrini & Cudahy, 1952. Pp. 62.

An interesting description of why and how the parent and the teacher should observe the child's art and not take the art tools from his hands and finish a piece of work for him. Also serves as a guide for teachers.

148. GALLAGHER, J. ROSWELL. *Your Children's Health: A Handbook for Parents and Teachers*. Better Living Booklet for Parents and Teachers. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. Pp. 48.

Furnishes adults with practical up-to-date information about the health of children.

149. GRANT, EVA H. *Parents and Teachers as Partners*. Better Living Booklet for Parents and Teachers. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. Pp. 48.

Points out ways to achieve co-operation of parents and teachers and how to overcome the obstacles between them.

150. KAWIN, ETHEL. *A Guide for Child-Study Groups*. Better Living Booklet for Parents and Teachers. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. Pp. 72.

Gives specific and detailed procedures to parents, teachers, and youth leaders for organizing and carrying on group study and discussions on understanding and helping children.

151. *Kindergarten for Your Child: For Parents of Kindergarten Children*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Minneapolis Public Schools, 1952. Pp. 40.

A bulletin written to parents of kindergarten age children. Describes five-year-olds as they are individually and in groups and what and how the kindergarten program plans to meet their needs. Gives many specific suggestions on ways by which parents and teachers can learn to know the kindergarten child and how to work together for his well-being, physically, mentally, and emotionally.

152. KIRKENDALL, LESTER A. *Helping Children Understand Sex*. Better Living Booklet for Parents and Teachers. Chi-

cago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. Pp. 48.

Discusses the "pre-schooler," the child from six to twelve, the teen-ager, and the role of the school in the sex education of these children.

153. PUNER, HELEN W., prepared with the STAFF OF THE CHILD STUDY ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA. *Helping Brothers and Sisters Get Along*. Better Living Booklet for Parents and Teachers. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. Pp. 48.

Discusses how parents and teachers can help children build good brother-sister relations.

154. SWEET, MAYME A., and DIXON, DEANE PEDDYCOART. "Readable Newsletters for Parents of Kindergarten Children," *Elementary School Journal*, LII (February, 1952), 351-54.

Describes an interesting procedure for giving parents of kindergarten children an understanding of the learning which goes on in a kindergarten and to gain parents' co-operation in the promotion of such learnings. Several typical newsletters are included in the article.

155. WITTY, PAUL, and BRICKER, HARRY. *Your Child and Radio, TV, Comics and Movies*. Better Living Booklet for Parents and Teachers. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. Pp. 50.

Designed for parents and teachers. Discusses the things children see and hear on the radio and television, in comic books and comic strips, and in movies and the effects on the children. Suggests ways for parents and teachers to work for better programs and improvement in the use of present programs.

INVESTIGATIONS AND EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES²

156. BOND, GEORGE W. "Research and Reading Instruction," *Childhood Edu-*

² See also Items 448 (Sheldon and Carrillo) and 495 (Rudisill) in the list of selected refer-

cation, XXIX (November, 1952), 134-38.

Reviews research in four areas: (a) grouping for reading, (b) individualizing reading instruction, (c) experience reading and the basal reader, (d) formal reading readiness and the experience reading-readiness program. Lists certain needed research in reading and includes a useful bibliography.

157. COOK, RUTH CATHLYN. "A Dozen Summer Programs Designed To Promote Retention in Young Children," *Elementary School Journal*, LII (March, 1952), 412-17.

Reports the results of a twelve-year experiment of providing second-grade children with different types of directed summer reading. About a dozen plans were used, and the degree of success of each is noted.

158. FRENCH, JOHN E. "Children's Preferences for Pictures of Varied Complexity of Pictorial Pattern," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (October, 1952), 90-95.

Describes a research project on children's preferences for pictures with varying degrees of complexity. Children from contrasting socioeconomic levels were tested. The results were surprising and unlike those that adults might expect.

159. HAMALAINEN, ARTHUR E. "Kindergarten-Primary Entrance Age in Relation to Later School Adjustment," *Elementary School Journal*, LII (March, 1952), 406-11.

A study of the effect of kindergarten entrance age upon the adjustment and progress of children through the kindergarten and Grades I and II. The results seem to indicate that both under-age and over-age children have more problems in social adjustment than do those of normal entrance age.

ences appearing in the October, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

160. HEINZ, MAMIE. "When to School?" *Childhood Education*, XXVIII (March, 1952), 318-21.

Summarizes answers to questionnaires sent to state departments of education, state presidents of the Association for Childhood Education, and to teachers working with first-grade children. Suggests that the answer to the question of school-entrance age may depend upon what teachers, parents, and others in the community think is good living and learning for children.

161. HESTER, KATHLEEN B. "Every Child Reads Successfully in a Multiple-Level Program," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (October, 1952), 86-89.

Describes experiments in classrooms where a multiple-level reading program was instituted to try to eliminate reading failure. Develops the theory that, in a flexible grouping program and a permissive atmosphere, children will voluntarily join the groups which most nearly meet their basic reading needs and hence will make greater progress.

162. KOHLER, RICHARD C. "Use of Arts Activities with Reading, Science, and Arithmetic," *Elementary School Journal*, LII (February, 1952), 355-59.

A study of the suggested uses of arts activities in the teaching of reading, science, and arithmetic, as recommended in ten series of teachers' guidebooks for Grades I-VI. The study shows the most frequent use of these activities in the primary grades, and the conclusions drawn indicate that, while there is great need for all teachers to be prepared to use the many arts media, the need is greatest for primary-grade teachers.

163. MORRIS, LUCILE. "Evaluating and Reporting Pupil Progress," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (November, 1952), 144-49.

Reviews briefly the history of reporting and gives the results of an experiment with various types of reporting conducted in one school. Although the study was carried on

in a middle grade, the implications are applicable to any grade.

164. *Schools at Work in Forty-eight States*. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Bulletin 1952, No. 13. Pp. x+138.

A co-operative study, covering a period of two and one half years, of elementary-school practices, which was made by staff members from the Office of Education. Reports what was seen and learned about ways of working to improve education for children. Observations are divided into the following groups: "Teachers at Work," "Pupils at Work," "School Programs," and "School and Community Working Together."

FILMS³

CORONET INSTRUCTIONAL FILMS, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

165. *Farmyard Babies*. 11 minutes, black and white and color. 1952.

Delightful pictures of baby animals on the farm in spring. Suitable for all ages but especially for the younger groups.

166. *Mittens: Story of a Kitten*. 10 minutes, black and white and color. 1952.

The story of a cat's development from a squealing ball with closed eyes into an agile, mischievous kitten. Summarized with a

³ See also Item 730 (Soapy, the Germ Fighter) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

few, well-chosen flash-back scenes and coordinated narrative. Word recognition is stressed by flashing words across the screen in conjunction with the story and pictures.

167. *On the Way to School*. 11 minutes, black and white and color. 1952.

A good film to use with primary-grade children who are learning about transportation.

168. *Safety in Winter*. 11 minutes, black and white and color. 1952.

A safety film stressing sensible rules for walking in winter weather and for sledding, snowballing, and skating. The narration is clear and simple. A summary of all the important rules is included, with appropriate flash-back pictures and leading questions that are excellent as stimulus for class discussion of safety problems in winter. Good for kindergarten and all primary grades.

ENCYCLOPAEDIA BRITANNICA FILMS INC., WILMETTE, ILLINOIS

169. *Frank and His Dog*. 5 minutes, color. 1952.

A good short film to teach the care of a dog.

170. *The Story of Potatoes*. 12 minutes, black and white and color. 1952.

Tells the story of how potatoes are grown. Shows how potatoes are planted, cultivated, harvested, sorted, and packed for shipping. Especially good for Grade III and higher.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

T. L. JARMAN, *Landmarks in the History of Education: English Education as Part of the European Tradition*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, 1952. Pp. viii+324. \$4.75.

EDGAR W. KNIGHT, *Fifty Years of American Education: A Historical Review and Critical Appraisal*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. viii+484. \$4.75.

Twenty years ago Henry Johnson suggested that "if it is useful for the young to know something about past human experience, it would appear useful for those who are engaged in shaping history for the schools to know something about past human experience with history as a school subject." Then, after noting the contempt in which some educational reformers held such history—knowledge of which might suggest that their "frontier thinking" was somewhat lacking in novelty—he added that, when more such history had been written, we might expect it to be taken seriously, "even by reformers of history teaching."¹

While that perhaps utopian expectation has not yet been realized, it has long been standard operating procedure to expect future teachers to take courses in the history of education, or parts thereof, and for professors of education to write books suitable for use in such courses. The two works here reviewed—one by Professor T. L. Jarman, of the University of Bristol, England, and the other by Professor Edgar W. Knight, of the

University of North Carolina—reveal two of the several possible ways in which the job may be done. Jarman's *Landmarks in the History of Education*, intended for English readers primarily, is obviously merely a sketch of a very long and involved story. It is, nevertheless, a good sketch, which interprets leading developments in educational thought and practice in the context of Western intellectual history. Knight's *Fifty Years of American Education* provides more factual data for a much more limited time span.

Knight's work fulfils well two of the obligations of the educational historian: to provide a good and fairly full selection of accurate factual data and to reflect critically upon it. Beginning with a "Then and Now" chapter (1900, 1950), this book reviews significant developments in the United States on the three major educational levels and in professional education, discusses teachers and administrators and their preparation and work, and summarizes the effects of recent crises on American education and the pronouncements of educational leaders. The best clues to the central theme of the work are found in Knight's prophecy that "the big task ahead of education during the second half of the twentieth century is to do qualitatively what has been quantitatively done so well ever since 1900" (p. v) and in his apt quotations from Epictetus and from Henry Steele Commager (p. 463). Certainly the careful reader will be more impressed by the persistence of basic educational problems than by the adequacy of their solution to date, and will be led, perhaps, to prize more highly the efficacy than the supposed novelty of proposed educational reforms. Not new names for

¹ Henry Johnson, *An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences in Schools*. Report of the Commission on the Social Sciences, Part II. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1932.

"new" curriculums (of which a half-page list is given), but better selection and preparation of teachers and a lessening of imitation of whatever is currently fashionable among educational theorists, seem to Knight the proper conditions of true educational progress. Particularly noteworthy are the clear summaries of major educational reports since the early 1890's.

On the debit side there is something, though not much, that may be said. There are few factual errors (for example, "million" for "billion" on page 23). Occasionally, something might have been said on the other side of an issue still controversial (for instance, a quotation from one of the dissenting opinions in the New York "released-time" case might well have been included). Although well organized in the large, Knight's work lacks somewhat in smoothness of transitions within chapter and sometimes goes into unnecessary details. Probably a topical, rather than a chronological, organization of the N.E.A. pronouncements in chapter ix would have made that part more meaningful to most readers. All in all, *Fifty Years of American Education* is a valuable addition to the list of works on recent American education.

Jarman's delightfully written sketch will serve a different, if more limited, function. Its treatment of classical and medieval education in 125 pages and of modern English education in less than 200 pages will whet the appetite of the intelligent reader for "more," a demand which may be supplied by later use of some of the works cited in the excellent chapter bibliographies. It will be of most use to those readers who already have a good grasp of the main outlines of Western political and social thought or who wish an introduction to such reading via educational thought. Its apt, short quotations from well-chosen primary sources add life and color, as do the occasional anecdotes and thumbnail biographical sketches, such as the one about the redoubtable Eton headmaster in the dark ages of the recent past whose floggings were

notorious, especially the flogging in which he mixed up his lists and beat the candidates for confirmation! Jarman's work should be a popular number on the reading lists of courses in the history of education.

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*

HAROLD W. BERNARD, *Mental Hygiene for Classroom Teachers*. New York 27: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xiv + 472. \$4.75.

In his Preface to *Mental Hygiene for Classroom Teachers*, Harold W. Bernard says that mental hygiene is a point of view—a frame of reference. From then on he makes very little mention of this position. He simply goes about developing his point of view toward a diverse array of problems, both personal and classroom. Through 472 pages, the reader sees the mental-health viewpoint applied to discipline, marking, promoting, teaching methods, satisfaction in teaching, and the development of a philosophy of life and of education.

The first five chapters are devoted to developing what might be termed the "foundations" of Bernard's viewpoint. One of several significant contributions in this section should be especially noted: his insistence upon the universality of basic human needs. In recent years a misunderstanding has developed to the effect that specific ages or grade levels pose a special array of needs rather than an intensification or diminution of those that are with us throughout the life span. Bernard's treatment provides a foundation for a continuous, sequential learning-teaching process through the grades.

The volume's second section of six chapters gets down to classroom applications. Practical-minded teachers should resist the temptation to begin the book with this second section. The more theoretical introduc-

tory section is essential to full understanding of both the second and third sections. The latter deals with special approaches to mental health, such as fine and plastic arts, creative writing, psychodrama, sociodrama, and various role-playing activities. The final section of three chapters on the teacher's mental health is helpful and meaningful, even without the preceding sixteen chapters.

Bernard is most at home when he is developing his point of view and using school practice, from nursery through secondary school, to illustrate his views. It is when he deals directly with solutions to persistent classroom problems that he is not convincing. He deals with marking, for example, by espousing evaluation, but just what difference such a shift would make for Miss Jones and her thirty-five fifth-graders is never made clear. And when he begins talking about certain psychological phenomena, his approach becomes positively wooden. In the discussion of common adjustment mechanisms, for example, people disappear and categories harden.

Like many writers in the guidance field, Bernard does not come to grips with the issues involved in the old argument of the degree to which guidance should be for adjustment or for upward mobility or whether the two are synonymous. It is unfortunate, too, that illustrations of pupil-teacher and teacher-administrator relations seem to smack of an "I-approve-of-you" approach to mutual understanding. A final criticism has to do with his practice in a number of instances of using secondary reference material as sources of primary references when the primary sources were readily available.

Both his concern for avoidance of too much introspection and hasty analysis and his insistence upon staying within the limits of one's psychoanalytic capabilities are most commendable. The two chapters on the teacher's educational and personal philosophy, written in plain, nontechnical English, should be read by teachers everywhere. Bernard is to be commended, too, for taking

many classroom problems out of the realm of administrative expediency into the humanistic light of the mental-health point of view.

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HAROLD H. PUNKE, *Community Uses of Public School Facilities*. New York 27: King's Crown Press, Columbia University, 1951. Pp. 248 (processed). \$3.75.

During the course of the past several years it has become clearly apparent that the American people seek marked expansion in those services rendered at public expense. The general public's search for extended services is reflected especially in the increasing demands for use of public facilities. In most communities the facilities of the public schools will be given first consideration in meeting the growing requests of the public for wider service. Since it is essential that these services be furnished under the most efficient and effective conditions possible, thoughtful attention should be paid to the policies which govern the public use of school facilities.

The author of the book here reviewed states that effective administration of public school facilities in situations which press for their wider use demands an understanding of common-law principles which are not covered by specific statutes but which emerge from court rulings. *Community Uses of Public School Facilities* works out statements of such principles in clear, nontechnical language, shows their application to practical administrative situations, and points out their implications for the social structure of communities of the types concerned.

The initial chapter discusses the conditions under which facilities may be acquired for school purposes. The following four chapters are concerned with the use of such school facilities after they have been acquired. In sequential order, the author discusses the

various considerations that attend the use of school facilities for academic, religious, cultural and entertainment, and commercial purposes. Chapter vii presents a discussion of the conditions which must be observed in order to retain for school purposes facilities which exist because of land grants to private parties. The important problem of tort liability of school districts with respect to community use of school facilities is presented in chapter viii. In this chapter the author departs from the practice of developing understanding through the use of particular circumstances from which controversies have emerged, in favor of a historical treatment of statutes and court rulings involving tort action. The volume is concluded with a sum-

mary chapter which depicts the geographical distribution of the 238 cases reviewed and points out the social implications of the wider use of school facilities.

The clear, nontechnical style of the author and the presence of valuable summaries at the end of each chapter, in addition to a complete review of significant chapter notes and court cases, make this volume a highly useful reference. It should be of particular value to school superintendents, school-board members, teachers and students of school administration, recreational directors, and others serving the public welfare.

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METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

American School Curriculum. Thirty-first Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington 6: American Association of School Administrators, 1953. Pp. 552. \$5.00.

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ENGELHARDT, N. L.; ENGELHARDT, N. L., JR.; and LEGGETT, STANTON. *Planning Elementary School Buildings*. New York 18: F. W. Dodge Corp., 1953. Pp. 268. \$12.50.

HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J. *Human Development and Education*. New York 3: Longmans Green, & Co., 1953. Pp. x+338. \$4.00.

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Growing Up in Society. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1953. Pp. xxii+520.

MOUSTAKAS, CLARK E. *Children in Play Therapy: A Key to Understanding Normal and Disturbed Emotions*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. x+218. \$3.50.

ODELL, C. W. *How To Improve Classroom Testing*. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1953. Pp. vi+156. \$3.00.

STRANG, RUTH. *The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953 (fourth edition). Pp. xvi+492. \$3.75.

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MITTEE OF THE EDUCATIONAL RECORDS BUREAU. *Introduction to Testing and the Use of Test Results in Public Schools*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1953. Pp. x+114. \$2.50.

BOOKS FOR ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

BLUMENTHAL, JOSEPH C.; FRANK, ROBERT; ZAHNER, LOUIS; and SCHENDLER, SYLVAN. *Living Language*: Grade IX, pp. x+, 438, \$2.68; Grade X, pp. x+438, \$2.68; Grade XI, pp. x+438, \$2.72; Grade XII, pp. viii+426, \$2.72. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1953.

BRYANT, MARGARET M.; HOWE, M. L.; JENKINS, PHILIP R.; and MUNN, HELEN T. *English at Work*: Course One, pp. xviii+526, \$2.60; Course Two, pp. xx+522, \$2.60; Course Three, pp. xx+518, \$2.72; Course Four, pp. xviii+526, \$2.72. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1953.

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McKEE, PAUL; McCOWEN, ANNIE; HARRISON, M. LUCILE; and LEHR, ELIZABETH. *Sky Lines*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1953. Pp. 336. \$2.24.

NEUGARTEN, BERNICE L. *How To Get Along with Others*. Junior Life Adjustment Booklet. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1953. Pp. 40. \$0.40.

ROSS, JACOB M.; NIEMAN, EGBERT W.; and BOWMAN, MARY RIVES. *Adventures for Readers*: Book I, pp. xii+498, \$3.04; Book II, pp. x+500, \$3.04. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1953.

They Made America: *Stephen F. Austin, Father of Texas* by CARLETON BEALS. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. viii+278. \$2.80.

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MEECE, LEONARD E.; ADAMS, HAROLD P.; ECKEL, HOWARD; and HOPPER, ROBERT L. *Twenty-five Years of Service to Kentucky Schools*. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XXV, No. 2. Lexington, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1952. Pp. 64. \$0.50.

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FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY: OFFICE OF EDUCATION:

Bulletin 1952, No. 9—*The Teaching of General Biology in the Public High Schools of the United States: An Inquiry into Offerings, Enrollments, Course Organization, Facilities, Equipment and Expenditures, 1949-50* by W. EDGAR MARTIN. Pp. x+46. \$0.20.

Bulletin 1952, No. 11—*The Forward Look: The Severely Retarded Child Goes to School* by ARTHUR S. HILL. Pp. vi+54. \$0.20.

Bulletin 1952, No. 13—*Schools at Work in 48 States: A Study of Elementary School Practices*. Pp. x+138. \$0.35.

Bulletin 1952, No. 19—*Recordings for Teaching Literature and Language in the High School: Including a Bibliography of 500 Titles* by ARNO JEWETT. Pp. iv+72.

Bulletin 1952, No. 20—*Health Services in*

City Schools by H. F. KILANDER. Pp. vi+68. \$0.25.

Circular No. 356, 1952—"Checklists for Public School Adult Education Programs" by HOMER KEMPFER with the assistance of MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE ON EVALUATION, ADULT EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. Pp. 18 (processed). \$0.15.

Circular No. 357, 1952—"Eight Measures for Evaluating Educational Programs for the Foreign Born" by HOMER KEMPFER with the advice of MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION OF THE FOREIGN BORN OF THE ADULT EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. Pp. 14 (processed). \$0.15.

Directory of Secondary Day Schools 1951-52: Showing Accredited Status, Enrollment, Staff, and Other Data by MABEL C. RICE. Pp. xviii+170. \$1.00.

Pamphlet No. 112, 1952—*Some Problems in the Education of Handicapped Children* by ROMAINE P. MACKIE. Pp. iv+12. \$0.15.

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THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL

Volume LIII

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APRIL 1953

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Number 8

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL LIBRARY

THE IMPORTANCE of the centralized school library in the total elementary-school program is seldom questioned by educators of today. Most of them are agreed that there is need for a well-planned library in every public school of two hundred or more pupils if the school is to function in a manner that best meets the needs of its pupils and the community. It is now widely accepted that even the youngest pupil can gain from having free and ready access to the facilities of a centralized library.

Classroom collections are important supplements to a centralized school library, but in no sense can they ever replace the centralized library. The classroom collections should be fluid collections borrowed from the school library for use with particular units of work and constantly changing as the year's work changes. The school li-

brary provides the child with a place where he can read widely beyond the limits of prescribed textbooks or lesson assignments and into fields of interest that may never be touched in his class work.

In an article on "School Libraries and the Social Order" appearing in the January, 1953, issue of *Library Trends* (a publication of the University of Illinois Library School), Frances Henne, associate professor in the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, points out that, even though many school administrators, teachers, and parents recognize the value of the school library, "the elementary school having one remains the exception rather than the rule." Too often practice has not kept pace with principle, and, in the building of elementary schools, top priority has been given to classrooms, offices, lunchrooms, gymnasiums, and other facilities, and a li-

brary has been included only if sufficient funds remained after other rooms and equipment have been provided.

Such planning, or lack of planning, is one of the important problems facing school libraries today. According to Miss Henne, the situation stems in part from the fact that teachers are not generally aware of the part a good school library can and should play in the total school program:

In the last analysis, the program for the preparation of teachers may well provide the impetus that is needed. In addition to courses that acquaint prospective teachers with good books and other materials for children and young people, the teacher-training program should include the provision that prospective teachers become familiar with the services of a good school library. Today the chances are high that the prospective teacher will be graduated with little or no familiarity with books for youth or with other materials of communication for youth; the chances are strong that the teacher-training agency will have no collection of children's books, or at best a pitifully inadequate and haphazard collection. The school library functions to the extent that the teachers motivate its use; such stimulation will be quickened and the demand for good libraries in schools will be accelerated when teachers become familiar with the resources and services of a good school library.

In order to function properly, the elementary-school library should have a well-trained librarian, who will be able to select wisely the books and other materials in the collection and use them to the best advantage of pupils and teachers. Miss Henne urges:

Needless to say, the materials in libraries should be good materials. The cheap, the false, and the mediocre have no place in the schools. The current concern about young people who can't or won't read has frequently resulted in the selection of inferior books. No mediocre book has ever met a reading need or interest better than a good book, and good books of all kinds exist in abundance for young people today. Getting the child or young person to read something, no matter what that something may be, just for the sake of reading, is fallacious and dangerous, and fails to justify the process of reading as an end in itself. To read anything may not necessarily be better than reading nothing. Another erroneous and unsafe theory in the selection of books and other materials for youth can be detected in some communities—too many instances have been revealed recently where bigoted censorship has been exercised and certain books, magazines, and films recommended in standard lists for school libraries have been banned. This theory follows the hazardous proposition that ignorance can only be fought with ignorance. Librarians and teachers must have freedom to select the best materials for their schools, and pressure groups outside must not have the power to dictate what books and other materials should or should not go into the school.

Education, to meet current needs, must include thinking as well as knowing, but the student must have a sound background of accurate knowledge before he can think intelligently. Children who are allowed free access to television, radio, adult magazines, and newspapers in which current problems, social and economic, national and international, are discussed, often with strong biases, should not be deprived of books in which the same

problems are treated objectively and at the level of their understanding.

THE UNITED NATIONS AND THE SCHOOLS

THE BASIC PRINCIPLES on which the United Nations Film Division operates have been set forth by Benjamin Cohen, the UN assistant secretary-general for public information:

The ultimate success of the United Nations will depend on the profound desire of all people to have it succeed. This will only be achieved if there is created throughout the world a climate of good will and understanding founded on a sure knowledge of what the United Nations is doing and trying to do. Too often we are thought of as merely the political guardians of the peace. But people must know, too, that in the fields of social well-being and economic health, the United Nations is playing an active part to create the happy life which will provide the conditions in which peace is possible and war unthought of.

To inform all people of our high endeavor and measure of success, we must address ourselves to all men by the written word, the spoken word, through radio, through pictures, and through the medium of the motion picture. The screens of the world and television are carrying even to people who cannot read, a description of our work in newsreels and documentary films. This is the picture which may yet give men the knowledge to be free and live at peace.

In an article on the "UN Approach to Film," the October, 1952, issue of *Film News* reports that the first task of the Film Division was to record on film the story of the founding and early history of the United Nations, including the basic principles on which it is based. It was also given the task

of describing the work of the specialized agencies, which had been established but had not at that time begun functioning. From this early period came films such as "Defense of the Peace," "The Peoples' Charter," "Battle for Bread," and "The Eternal Fight."

After the specialized agencies had organized projects in various countries, the Film Division began reporting the progress of these projects through screen magazines, and this technique of screen reporting is still the basic type of United Nations filmmaking.

That there is great need in this country for an increasing spread of knowledge and understanding of the United Nations and the work of its specialized agencies is evident in the recent attacks which have been made on the United Nations and especially on UNESCO. In discussing the attack on UNESCO which was made in Los Angeles, the January, 1953, issue of *Strengthening Democracy* (published by the Board of Education of New York City) has this to say:

In the recent attack on UNESCO in Los Angeles, the attention given to such topics as "Knowledge of the Machinery for International Considerations," "Improving Communications," and "Reducing Tensions" was characterized as "a communistic device for undermining patriotism." This equation of UNESCO's activities with subversion is undoubtedly based on honest misunderstanding of its purposes by some; in the case of others it is a deliberate attempt to mislead.

Where honest criticism is directed against UNESCO, educators have an obligation to meet it; but when attacks are based on

a perversion of the organization's purposes and activities, educators have an equally strong obligation to expose them. . . .

The [UNESCO] constitution declares: "With a view to preserving the independence, integrity, and fruitful diversity of the cultures and educational systems of the States Members of this Organization, the Organization is prohibited from intervening in matters which are essentially within their domestic jurisdiction."

This provision demonstrates that UNESCO, like the UN, is not a supranational authority but an organization of sovereign states. UNESCO, therefore, has no control over what is taught in the schools of member nations; it provides assistance to a member nation only when specifically asked to do so and then the country requesting aid must contribute to the support of the project. In carrying out its aims in a world where no nation, any longer, can live alone, UNESCO has made studies of international tensions and the causes of war, aided member nations to combat poverty and disease and to tackle the problem of illiteracy, and promoted mutual understanding through conferences, the international exchange of persons, and the reduction of barriers to the free flow of information. . . .

As Paul G. Hoffman informed the Los Angeles School Board: "The Kremlin considers UNESCO one of its most dangerous opponents. The reason is obvious. The last thing the Communists want is a free exchange of information among the peoples of the world. That is why they erected the Iron Curtain around the Soviet Empire. . . . I find it tragically paradoxical that in the name of patriotism misguided groups here in Los Angeles should be attacking UNESCO and thus following precisely the party line laid down by Moscow."

In countering attacks which distort the purpose of UNESCO, the U.S. National Commission for UNESCO characterized many of the offenders as "the notorious supporters of totalitarianism and of rowdy at-

tacks on racial and religious groups. They carry on falsely in the name of patriotism. The U.S. National Commission for UNESCO warns against this device of hiding behind the flag, while, at the same time, seeking to destroy freedom. The Commission calls on public groups and the press to continue to expose those who assail the integrity of teachers because of their interest in the United Nations."

The Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators states in the recently published book, *The United Nations, UNESCO, and American Schools*:

Young Americans, as part of their education for citizenship, should have opportunities to learn in school why their country is following a policy of international co-operation, how that policy works, and what it means to have their country a member of the UN and UNESCO. . . .

Those who would have the schools suppress the facts of history as they relate to the UN and UNESCO . . . are in a position that is indefensible in terms of American principles.

Those citizens who take this position start from false premises. They assume that America has no world responsibilities and no world-affected interests . . . that schools are institutions where ideas are forced upon students instead of being examined critically . . . that the violence of their attacks can cow or mislead others into acquiescence.

With the wealth of available information about the United Nations and its specialized agencies, there is no excuse for school libraries and classrooms to lack such materials. The Department of State has published for the U.S. National Commission for

UNESCO a bulletin listing sources of information about the United Nations. *Where To Go for UN Information* is not a bibliography but a directory of addresses where various types of information about the United Nations are readily available. The booklet may be purchased from the Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., for \$0.15 a copy.

VISUAL AIDS IN EDUCATION

VISUAL AIDS, in the minds of most persons, mean films and, lately, television. According to Mrs. Pauline M. Foster, chairman of the Department of School Library Service at the University of Alabama, the bulletin board is the leading visual aid for most school libraries. She writes in the *Alabama School Journal* of January, 1953:

The promotion of the more effective use of the bulletin boards in the library, in the classrooms, and in the entrance corridor proves to be one of the best investments of the librarian's time and yields large returns in increased appreciation of the library, in the stimulation of reading, and in the broadening of pupil interests.

Pupil committees should have an important part in planning and executing bulletin-board arrangements in the library and in the classroom. In addition to providing a valuable group experience, pupil participation insures displays which appeal to the natural interests of children and creates marked interest in the completed display. . .

A well-planned program throughout the year should aim to feature practically every interest in the library: books, pamphlets, and audio-visual materials in all fields; important birthdays; special holidays and school occasions; seasons; hobbies of faculty and pupils; and classwork exhibits. Every

library exhibit should advertise books and not just a holiday or occasion. The books featured in the exhibit should be carefully chosen to maintain pupils' faith in the librarian's book-selecting ability. Advertise old books as well as new ones.

Ronald R. Lowdermilk, senior specialist in radio-television in the Division of State and Local School Systems of the United States Office of Education, makes a similar brief for the importance of the tape recorder in classroom teaching. In an article in *School Life* for December, 1952, he suggests using the tape recorder in kindergartens to get timid pupils to participate in group discussions. Tape recordings of their own voices will show them that they sound no different from any of the other children. Tape recording may also be used in foreign-language classes to help students who are having difficulty making certain sounds. Educational broadcasts that come at an inopportune time may be recorded on tape for future classroom use. Because tape can be erased and used over again, it becomes a versatile and relatively low-cost teaching aid. Lowdermilk writes:

In providing a convenient and inexpensive means of preserving potentially useful instructional content, the magnetic tape recorder is serving to expand the quantity and variety of teaching materials available at the local-school level. Already widely used for recording samples of pupil performance for purposes of self-criticism and analysis, it is ushering in new instructional techniques and practices that show great promise for the improvement of teaching. Its use in the field of dramatics is now well established, and it is encouraging the use of radio-dramatization

techniques at all academic levels from the primary grades through the senior college.

In short, it is doubtful that any other item of communications equipment has ever fired the imagination or challenged the ingenuity of teachers to the extent that the tape recorder has, or has achieved general acceptance as a bona fide instructional tool in so short a time.

While recognizing the value of other visual aids in educational programs, educators of today realize that their major concern must be with television and its use in education. The year is fast drawing to a close during which certain channels are reserved for non-commercial educational television stations. These reservations were made subject to cancellation after June 2, 1953, unless educators have shown that the channels will be used effectively.

Because the success or failure of educational television depends on the leadership of educators, the American Council on Education sponsored the Educational Television Programs Institute which was held on April 20-24, 1952, less than a week after the Federal Communications Commission issued the order reserving channels for educational television. The American Council has issued a Summary Report of the Institute under the title *Television in Education*. In this report the problem confronting educators is summed up as follows:

The year ahead is short, not only because, as the Commission recognized, financing will require more time for educational institutions than for commercial stations, but because whole new patterns of co-operation must be forged among organizations which

have not heretofore had occasion to establish formal working relationships.

The year is short, too, because educational institutions—whatever their ownership and control—are in a sense public enterprises since they depend for their support, ultimately, upon the American public. The task of informing the far-flung educational constituency about the potential of television as an educational tool is for all these reasons a vital one, and it is also a task of tremendous proportions. Educationally significant uses of television depend completely upon the interest and concern of the teachers in each institution; but even if the teachers want to use television, those who control and those who provide financial support to the institution must understand sympathetically the objectives to be served, else the needed support will be lacking; and probably it is true to say that, unless the chief executives understand sympathetically the objectives to be served, neither the teachers nor the controllers and financial supporters can possibly be alerted to the opportunities at hand. The task is indeed a large one, and a year is a short period of time for such an undertaking.

On a more hopeful note, the Council reports:

The speed with which hundreds of educational organizations have responded to the deadline imposed in the April 14 order is reassuring evidence of serious intent. It is the more reassuring because the notarized papers sent to the FCC have in virtually all cases been the product of committees—committees often made up of representatives of diverse educational groups which have never met before to tackle any problem jointly.

The New York State Board of Regents, recognizing the necessity for prompt action in developing the use of educational television, has proposed "the creation of a state-wide educational network of ten stations, that

would serve approximately 90 per cent of the state's population."

In *New York State Education* for February, 1953, Carroll V. Newsom, associate commissioner for higher education of New York State, and David Parr, his assistant, describe the plans under way:

According to the proposal, in each of the ten areas where a station is to be located, a limited number of live programs would originate daily. These programs would be supplemented through the widespread use of films and of kinescopes of successful educational television programs. . . . at the start . . . co-operation between stations would be carried out through the exchange of kinescopes. . . . Further features of the Regents plan include the following:

1. Payment by the state of the cost of construction and equipping the ten local stations.

2. Maintenance and operation by the state's providing requisite engineering and technical staff and a skeleton programing and production staff to work with participating educational and cultural agencies and to correlate their programing activities. (It is assumed that participating organizations will be responsible for providing program participants and such script writers, art work, and properties as may be necessary.)

3. Local control through organization of a council in each area where a television station is located, such council to include representatives of the colleges and universities, the public and private schools, the art galleries, museums, and libraries. This council would be responsible for the planning and development of the television programs for the local station and the utilization of the resources of the educational and cultural agencies of the area.

4. A division of television in the Education Department that would provide technical and consultative service to the local

councils, and would assist in the planning of educational programs.

5. The appointment of a committee representative of state departments and state-wide agencies which can contribute to educational television. Through such a committee the vast resources of the state in health, conservation, commerce, labor, agriculture, and mental hygiene may be made available to the schools and the public.

Sources of information concerning other developments in the field of educational television have been made available in the pamphlet, *Radio and Television Bibliography* (Federal Security Agency, Office of Education Bulletin 1952, No. 18), prepared by Gertrude G. Broderick, radio-TV education specialist of the Federal Office. The bulletin is available at \$0.20 a copy from the Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

A MAGAZINE ON READING

THE READING TEACHER, the professional bulletin of the International Council for the Improvement of Reading Instruction, was expanded into a full-sized magazine, beginning with the issue of September, 1952. Each issue is built around a central theme and, in addition to the articles on the main theme, includes special articles, news of the Council, book reviews, and other features.

The first issue in the new format was devoted to the problem of individual help in the reading program. According to Emmett A. Betts:

Much lip service has been given to individual differences. Many books and hundreds of articles have been published on this topic. In spite of this flow of words, investi-

gations of classroom practices yield indisputable evidence that regimentation in one form or another is still the order of the day. An all-out effort to differentiate instruction in elementary and secondary schools is yet to be made.

Betts summarizes some of the conclusions from studies in the area of group and individual differences:

1. First-grade entrants present a wide range of individual differences in oral-language achievement.
2. At successive age or grade levels, the range of differences in language development is increased.
3. The range of differences at a given age or grade level is greater than the average difference between two successive grade levels.
4. There is almost as much variability within the individual as there are differences among individuals in a class or group. That is, an individual's abilities (e.g., language facility, music, numbers) tend to be relatively independent of each other.
5. A group with approximately the same achievement level in reading varies widely in abilities required for arithmetic computation, music, art, science, etc.
6. Provision for individual needs rather than nonpromotion of low-achievers and retarded readers appears to be the key to the problem.

To be successful, a program of differentiated instruction requires, on the part of the teacher, a thorough knowledge of the abilities and interests of each of his pupils, a knowledge of the different techniques in the development of the various reading skills, and a knowledge of books and materials that will suit the varied interests and abilities of the students. It is at this last point that the teacher works most closely with the school librarian, who

can give help in locating materials on a wide range of subjects and at all levels of reading difficulty.

The Reading Teacher is published five times a year. It is mailed to all ICIRI members in good standing. Membership dues are \$2.00 a year, and checks should be mailed to the executive secretary-treasurer, Donald L. Cleland, Reading Laboratory, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh 13, Pennsylvania. The magazine is available to nonmembers at a subscription rate of \$4.00 a year (less 25 per cent to educational institutions).

CHILDREN'S BOOKS

TWO EVENTS of interest and importance in the field of children's books take place each spring. Early in March announcement is made of the Newbery and Caldecott Medal winners. On March 9, 1953, Miss Rosemary Livsey, chairman of the Awards Committee of the Children's Library Association, a section of the American Library Association, presented the award medals for the 1952 books. The Newbery Medal, which is given for the most distinguished story-book of the year, was presented to Ann Nolan Clark for her book *Secret of the Andes* (Viking Press). The Caldecott Medal, given for the most distinguished picture-book of the year, went to Lynd Ward for his book *The Biggest Bear* (Houghton Mifflin).

Secret of the Andes is the thirty-second children's book to receive the Newbery award. *The Biggest Bear* is the sixteenth Caldecott award book. Runners-up for this year's awards

were: E. B. White's *Charlotte's Web* (Harper), Elsie McGraw's *Moccasin Trail* (Coward-McCann), Alice Dalgliesh's *Bears on Hemlock Mountain* (Scribner), Ann Weil's *Red Sails to Capri* (Viking Press), and Genevieve Foster's *Birthdays of Freedom* (Scribner) for the Newbery award; Marcia Brown's *Puss in Boots* (Scribner) Robert McCloskey's *One Morning in Maine* (Viking Press), Fritz Eichenberg's *Ape in a Cape* (Harcourt), Margaret Bloy Graham's illustrations in the *Storm Book* by Charlotte Zolotow (Harper), and Juliet Kepes' *Five Little Monkeys* (Houghton Mifflin), for the Caldecott award.

The third week in May will mark the seventeenth annual celebration of the Children's Spring Book Festival sponsored by the New York *Herald Tribune*. A cash prize of \$200.00 will be awarded to each of three books judged the best published during the first part of 1953 for boys and girls in three age groups. Planned to encourage the spring sale of books for young people, the Children's Spring Book Festival gives nation-wide publicity to the winners as well as to twelve honor books named by the judges.

Libraries, schools, and bookstores around the country are planning exhibits of interest to both parents and children for the week of May 15-22. Focal point of the children's book displays will be a colorful poster designed by artist Lynd Ward, mentioned above as winner of the 1952 Caldecott award. A kit containing two of the posters, stickers, suggestions for arranging an exhibit, and other festival

publicity material may be obtained at a cost of 15 cents to cover postage. Additional posters are available at 6 cents each. Orders and remittances in stamps should be sent to Nancy Longley, Children's Spring Book Festival, New York Herald Tribune, New York 36, New York.

CONFERENCES FOR ADMINISTRATORS

MAKING ADMINISTRATION serve our educational needs is the theme of a series of related conferences and workshops to be held at the University of Chicago during July and August. The Midwest Administration Center, with Francis S. Chase as director, is sponsoring the conferences in collaboration with the American Association of School Administrators and other institutions and organizations. This is part of a nation-wide Cooperative Program in Educational Administration supported by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

The conferences will be of interest to principals, supervisors, superintendents, members of state departments of education, faculty members of institutions preparing administrators, school-board members, and citizens interested in schools. Each conference will be centered on problems arising in some aspect of administration. The topics to be dealt with are scheduled as follows:

- July 6-7, Developing Leadership for Improved Instruction
- July 13-14, Improving Consultative Services to Schools
- July 20-21, Improving the Effectiveness of Boards of Education

- July 27-28, Creating Effective Organization for Education
 August 3-4, Developing Sound Finance Policies for Education
 August 10-11, Developing Public Understanding and Responsibility for Education

For persons who wish to secure credit for conference participation and additional study, there will be a workshop on "Educational Administration and Supervision" (Education Course 330 A, B, C). Attendance at any two of the conferences and completion of related workshop requirements will earn one course credit. A participant may earn one, two, or three course credits, depending on the number of conferences attended and of related requirements completed.

Copies of the conference and workshop programs, with instructions for securing living accommodations, may be obtained from either Francis S. Chase, director of the Midwest Administration Center, or Herman G. Richey, secretary of the Department of Education, both at the University of Chicago, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

MARY K. EAKIN

REPRESENTATIVE YEAR- BOOKS OF 1952-53

EDUCATORS have learned to look for the stimulating ideas contained in the yearbooks which are published by some of the national professional organizations. Short descriptions of a few of the 1952-53 yearbooks are given in the following pages.

Basic elements for learning Early in November the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education

Association published its yearbook on *Bases for Effective Learning*. The purpose of the yearbook, which offers a wide sampling of new ideas and current practices in elementary education reported by active members of the profession throughout the country, is to promote understanding of what underlies and buttresses effective learning and teaching procedures. The book points out that today's educators know more than ever before about child growth and development and that the basic function of a dynamic school program is to use this knowledge in providing for the total emotional, social, physical, and intellectual growth and development of the child.

One chapter reports a study showing that teachers and pupils were happier and more satisfied when they had a voice in school policy-making. Other chapters, highlighting effective procedures now being used, deal with the elementary-school principal as leader and pace-setter, school-community relations (techniques, public relations, use of human resources), the well-adjusted classroom teacher, the well-adjusted child, adjusting methods to children's needs, and the physical environment.

The yearbook is available from the office of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association, Washington 6, D.C., at \$3.00 a copy.

Changes in society and in schools Schools change as society changes, and those who plan the school curriculum today must constantly seek the kinds of improvements that will prepare all boys and girls to live and operate more effectively and efficiently in a free society. This is the basic theme of the 1953 Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators entitled *American School Curriculum*.

The authors, a commission of nine prominent educators and one newspaper reporter, review the entire field of modern curriculum development, pointing up the roles played by pupils, teachers, the home and community. They describe many teaching innovations developed in recent years in the nation's elementary and secondary schools.

In releasing the volume to the press, AASA Executive Secretary Worth McClure stated that the entire commission report was written within the framework of the free-enterprise point of view. The first chapter tells what American schools are for. Other chapters of the publication deal with how children learn and grow, mobilizing to improve curriculums, curriculum developments in elementary and secondary schools, better aids to instruction, building public understanding, and appraising classroom achievement and the school's total impact.

The commission reminds school administrators and classroom teachers that the public is deeply concerned with the question, "How well are our schools doing?" Tomorrow's schools

will do well to accumulate the evidence that will enable them to answer this question, not only to satisfy the public, but for their own guidance in continued improvement. The commission describes some newly developed methods of measuring results.

This yearbook may be purchased from the office of the American Association of School Administrators, Washington 6, D.C., at \$5.00 a copy.

Analysis of education in our culture The 1953 yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Forces Affecting American Education*, will be helpful to laymen and educators alike as they work together in developing better educational programs for youth. The yearbook is the result of a two-year study by a committee appointed by the Association. It takes stock of the nation's provisions for public education at midcentury and describes the "forces," good and bad, affecting schools in this country today.

The report emphasizes that educational leadership is a tough, rugged business in our country at the present time. Education must "keep pace with or resist" certain major influences in modern life. It must react to today's mode of living. It must react to findings of research and the expanded use of communications. Education also must protect itself against groups of people representing vested interests while it co-operates with others sincerely trying to give assistance.

Urging better community participation in the schools, the report says:

We have patchwork programs of community relations and participation across the country. Public education will operate under a formidable handicap until we throw our real weight behind an all-out program of information and participation in the business of public education for the whole of the American people.

Orders for this yearbook may be sent to the Association for Curriculum Development, National Education Association, Washington 6, D.C.

Two parts of NSSE yearbook The 1953 yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education comprises two volumes, each of which deals with a major problem of peculiar significance in relation to current social movements.

Part I of this yearbook is devoted to discussion of the instructional program at the high-school level. The chief concern of the volume is directly indicated by the title, *Adapting the Secondary-School Program to the Needs of Youth*. Recognizing the emerging concept of human needs as the basic factor in the determination of educational objectives, this yearbook describes effective methods of identifying the needs of youth and of translating those needs into appropriate teaching goals. Practical suggestions are given for guiding the learning experiences of youth, for constructing programs of learning calculated to meet both the common needs of all young people and the unique requirements of particular individuals of high-school age, and for evaluating the

progress of students toward the satisfaction of their recognized needs. Consideration is given to adjustments that are required in teacher-education programs in order to prepare secondary-school teachers for participation in the preparation of suitable programs for youth as well as for more satisfactory professional service as faculty members of modern high schools.

Part II of the present yearbook of this Society is entitled *The Community School*. In this volume, too, the emphasis is on one of the challenging aspects of current educational philosophy, namely, identifying the aims of education with the improvement of community life. In this treatise the community school is defined as one that offers suitable educational opportunities to all age groups and selects appropriate learning experiences from the unsolved problems of community enterprises. The yearbook describes stimulating examples of successful community-improvement projects in which the school program was adjusted to the requirements of responsible participation in community-centered movements in behalf of the economic as well as the cultural welfare of all population groups. This volume is a valuable aid to teachers in training as well as to teachers in service and members of the faculties of schools and colleges.

The two volumes of this yearbook are available on order to the University of Chicago Press at \$3.50 for each volume in cloth binding, or \$2.75 in paper covers.

WHO'S WHO FOR APRIL

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by MARY K. EAKIN, librarian at the Children's Book Center of the University of Chicago. CLARA P. McMAHON, at the time this article was written an educational specialist with the Federal Civil Defense Administration, now with the Office of Education, writes about the skills, understandings, and attitudes relative to civil defense that may be developed in the student through incorporating resource materials in subject-matter areas. RALPH C. PRESTON, associate professor of education at the University of Pennsylvania, compares the German language with English, and elementary-school reading instruction in Germany with that in America, to determine why fewer pupils in the former country have word-recognition difficulties. ETHYL VANDEBERG, kindergarten supervisor of the College Elementary School, Eastern Washington College of Education, Cheney, Washington, writes of the special role that the kindergarten can play in getting children ready for reading and the other language arts, and describes activities which will help accomplish this goal. JAMES C. COLEMAN, assistant profes-

sor of psychology and administrator of the Clinical School of the University of California at Los Angeles, reports the results of an approach to remedial learning in which the whole student and his needs and weaknesses in areas other than the educational were taken into account. J. SHERRICK FISHER, director of elementary education at Eastern Illinois State College, Charleston, Illinois, presents and appraises the criteria by which a teacher-education program may be evaluated. A list of selected references from the literature on exceptional children is presented by CHRISTINE P. INGRAM, professor of education and psychology at Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois, and WILLIAM C. KVARACEUS, professor of education at Boston University.

Reviewers of books MARCELLA R. LAWLER, associate professor of education and executive officer of the Curriculum Service Center, Teachers College, Columbia University. ETHEL KAWIN, lecturer in education, University of Chicago, and consultant in parent education, National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

CIVIL DEFENSE AND EDUCATIONAL GOALS

CLARA P. McMAHON

Federal Civil Defense Administration



THE UNEASY WORLD SITUATION, the conflicts and tensions that have developed and show little signs of abating, have resulted in a need for a civil-defense organization that requires the support and participation of every citizen. Any threat to our national security makes it imperative that the schools intensify their efforts to accomplish their goals, while assuming the additional responsibility of adjusting the curriculum to develop in the pupils the qualities and characteristics needed in such an emergency. Teachers must therefore give careful consideration to these factors in helping their students gain a realistic education: an understanding of the concepts of civil defense and a realization of the curricular implications of these concepts.

Materials on civil defense—its organization, its concepts, and the changes it will bring about in our daily lives—are plentiful. But the teacher may be puzzled by the problem of how and where this mass of information and the seemingly endless supply of bulletins, pamphlets, booklets, and articles can be fitted into the over-all pattern of our educational system. The teacher may wonder whether these materials can be co-ordinated and taught in such a way that they

will contribute to the attainment of our educational objectives rather than become merely an accumulation of knowledge superimposed on the overburdened course of study. A quick review of our educational goals and the concepts of civil defense may clarify the relation between those concepts and the general objectives of instruction and may suggest specific civil-defense objectives as well.

RELATION OF CIVIL DEFENSE TO EDUCATIONAL GOALS

Generally speaking, all schools everywhere are attempting to achieve for their students four major goals: the personal development, growth, and learning of the individual; the improvement of human relations in the family and in the wider social environment; the development of economic efficiency in the creation and use of goods and services; and the preservation and extension of democratic values, the quickening of the social conscience, and the encouragement of responsible citizenship.¹ When these

¹ As set forth in the Educational Policies Commission and the Executive Committee of the American Council on Education, *Education and National Security*, p. 16. Washington 6: Published jointly by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School

goals are compared with the concepts of civil defense²—individual self-protection, extended self-protection, mutual aid, and mobile support—it requires no leap of logic to see how closely the concepts can be tied in with the aims of education; indeed, that they are actually an extension of those aims.

In the concept of *individual self-protection*, the family unit constitutes the basis for self-protection, and both the individual and the family should be educated in measures necessary for self-protection, such as first aid and home fire-fighting. *Extended self-protection*, the second concept of civil defense, moves from protection of the individual and the family unit to a thorough and extensive organization of the community for common protection and orderly action in the event of a disaster. The last two concepts—*mutual aid* (the exchange of assistance among communities based on prearranged plans and authorized by legal plans) and *mobile support* (the organization and use of civil-defense units and facilities outside the target areas for dispatch by state civil-defense authorities to damaged areas where needed) refer to the organized means by which individuals and communities can be helped in time of disaster.

The relation between these concepts and the aims of education is particu-

larly evident in the areas of civic responsibility and the improvement of human relations, for the philosophy that underlies civil defense is based on the individual's realization that his participation in the local civil-defense organization is a major factor in the preservation of our democratic heritage. Through careful consideration, the teacher can discover a number of opportunities to develop in students, in any area or at any level, civil-defense understandings and skills along with, and in many cases supplemental to, the larger skills and understandings we are constantly striving for in our schools.

RESULTS OF CIVIL-DEFENSE EDUCATION

The following skills, understandings, and attitudes illustrate those which pupils can be stimulated to develop by purposeful teaching of selected units on civil defense.

UNDERSTANDINGS

1. The release of atomic energy has opened upon a new age.
2. Atomic energy has tremendous potentialities for constructive as well as destructive uses.
3. The development and use of the atomic bomb does not mean the destruction of the civilized world.
4. Satisfactory international control of atomic energy is necessary to safeguard the world against atomic war.
5. There are other forms of warfare (besides atomic) to which we may be subjected and against which we must know how to protect ourselves.
6. Today no region in the world is so remote that it can feel secure from attack.
7. Dissension among nations and men, re-

Administrators, and the American Council on Education, 1951.

² "What Teachers Should Know about Civil Defense." Federal Civil Defense Administration Training Bulletin, School Series No. 2. Washington: Government Printing Office, March, 1952.

sulting in the need for civil defense, is due in part to a mutual lack of understanding and to mutual intolerance of differences.

8. While there is no adequate defense per se against the atomic bomb, the organization of our nation for civil defense will eliminate or lessen much of the dangers from an atom-bomb attack.
9. Civil-defense measures are not new. The history of our nation shows a number of instances where civilians have participated in war efforts.
10. Our nation's survival is at stake in the current world struggle.
11. An understanding of, and participation in, civil-defense activities is an expanded concept of good citizenship.
12. The most effective way to defend our homes and installations is through the voluntary efforts of the local community.
13. Conservation of resources is essential to the civil-defense effort. Consequently, those sections of the United States which may not be in danger of direct attack are nonetheless vital to the whole defense-organization movement.

SKILLS AND ABILITIES

1. To carry out automatically the rules of effective self-protection
2. To recognize and obey air-raid signals
3. To act without panic in an emergency
4. To be able to administer simple first aid
5. To think critically about the social, political, economic, and moral problems and issues created by the release of atomic energy
6. To read with understanding materials that deal with atomic energy, civil defense, and related areas
7. To gain increased knowledge of world affairs and the critical issues confronting mankind
8. To work well with peer groups in solving problems arising from the study of civil defense
9. To evaluate the impact of civil defense on society

ATTITUDES

1. Responsibility for participating in a civil-defense activity
2. A desire to help others in time of need
3. A desire to become better informed about civil defense, atomic energy, world conditions, and similar current matters
4. Confidence that intelligent study and action can be an approach to the solution of problems created by world conditions
5. Open-mindedness toward the opinions of others
6. A feeling of human worth and of respect for the rights of others
7. Loyalty and steadfastness toward our democratic heritage
8. Optimism and faith in facing the future

Once the resource materials on civil defense have been located and adapted to the various grade levels, their incorporation into subject-matter areas so that students acquire the necessary understandings, skills, and attitudes is a fairly simple process. Resource materials on civil defense are now plentiful and are becoming readily available to educators through workshops, extension and summer courses, conferences, educational journals and other publications. The Atomic Energy Commission, the Federal Civil Defense Administration, the United States Office of Education, the American Council on Education, the National Education Association, and other educational agencies have published or recommended materials that teachers can use in the classroom.

We want our youth to be real citizens in every sense of the word—a goal which can be better achieved when the teachers of America *expand* and *extend* their educational horizons to include civil-defense education.

COMPARISON OF WORD-RECOGNITION SKILL IN GERMAN AND IN AMERICAN CHILDREN

RALPH C. PRESTON

University of Pennsylvania



A NUMBER of observers have reported that fewer pupils in German elementary schools have word-recognition difficulties than pupils of the corresponding ages in the United States. The evidence I encountered during five months with Germany's new Institute for International Educational Research supports these reports. I had the opportunity to hear the oral reading of the five "best" and the five "poorest" readers in twelve classrooms in Hamburg and Munich, each room enrolling more than forty pupils. All grades between I and VIII were represented. The "best" and the "poorest" readers of each class were selected by the teacher on the basis of his subjective judgment. The reading took place during March, 1952.

The pupils read from their readers selections which they had not yet reached in class and upon which they presumably had not practiced. My criterion of low word-recognition skill was inability to pronounce correctly at least 95 per cent of the running words.

OBSERVATIONS

In each of the two first-grade classes I found four pupils, and in one second-

grade class two pupils, with low word-recognition skill. Above Grade II, only one pupil (a boy in a fifth-grade class) fell in the category of low word-recognition skill. After the experience of hearing these German children read aloud, I began to attach some credence to a generally expressed opinion of German teachers that by the end of the Grade II almost any child can read orally (without regard to degree of comprehension) almost anything in print!¹ In the United States, by way of contrast, even the best readers, at as advanced a level as Grade IX, may fail to read accurately 2 per cent of running words (as revealed in the norms for oral-word attack of the Diagnostic Reading Tests), and Triggs has shown that inaccuracies in identifying word sounds persist through Grade XII.²

¹ My first thought was that perhaps most German children with low word-recognition skill become arbitrarily assigned to the *Hilfschule* (the school for retarded children) and thus escaped detection. Investigation showed that this is not the case.

² Frances Oralind Triggs, "Development of Measured Word Recognition Skills, Grade 4 through the College Freshman Year," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XII (Autumn, 1952), 345-49.

What is the reason for the apparent strikingly high degree of success achieved by German pupils in learning word recognition? An explanation may be made, I believe, in terms of the nature of the German language and in terms of certain aspects of German school policy.³

THE GERMAN LANGUAGE

What attributes of the German language contribute to the high degree of success in word recognition of German school children?

1. The German language is more consistent, phonetically, than the English language. The former language is not, to be sure, strictly consistent. Compared with English, however, the variations are few and occur rarely. German children are not troubled by such inconsistencies as the differing sound values of *or*, as in *horse* and *worse*; of *ew*, as in *few* and *sew*; of *s*, as in *fuse*, *stop*, and *sugar*; of *ough*, as in *cough*, *tough*, and *through*; and of *g*, as in *give* and *gyro*. They are spared such vexations as having to learn the seven ways in which the sound *ay* is represented in English. In learning to read English, some children in the United States, upon dis-

covering that they cannot expect phonetic consistency, develop an insecurity and uncertainty. I have observed a similar reaction among certain German children, too, who are learning to read English.

2. The accenting of German words is more consistent than the accenting of English words. In German the first main syllable receives the accent: *Vater*, *Kindheit*, *Bahnhof*. The exceptions occur with words with unstressed prefixes (*Ersatz*) and the comparatively few foreign words that have found their way into the German language: *Interesse*, *Republik*, *Bouquet*. English contains no such simple rule: *industrious*, *interesting*, *individual*, etc.

3. Many more English words than German words are of foreign origin. This is important because foreign words do not lend themselves to easy structural analysis by the child. In German, *Wiedersehen* (to see again) consists of the words *again* and *see*; *Augenblick* (moment) is *wink of an eye*. Most polysyllabic words in German are easily broken up, not only into words of Germanic origin, but into words which are commonly known and which, in combination, suggest the meaning of the total compound word. For example, *Handschuh* (*hand*, *shoe*) means *glove*; and *Spielzeug* (*play*, *thing*) means *toy*. Many common words in English are of foreign origin, such as *industrious*, *criticism*, and *nuisance*. According to one estimate, about 60 per cent of all English words are, as are these words, of Latin-French origin. They do not consist of

³ A number of Germans critically examined my first formulation of these ideas and made valued suggestions. Among these are Otto Kegel, of Frankfurt am Main, and Wolfgang Winter, of Berlin, both of whom are specialists in philology; and members of an informal group of teachers in Frankfurt am Main known as the *Arbeitsgemeinschaft für Jugendkunde*. Also, Dr. Otto Springer, professor of German at the University of Pennsylvania, critically read the first draft of this article.

Teutonic roots as do most of the everyday words that a child learns first, and they therefore do not divide into commonly familiar words or roots. Consequently, the task of recognizing word meanings through what in German is the very dependable device of structural analysis is extremely difficult in English.

4. The German child has fewer words to learn than the American child. Not only does English have perhaps more than twice as many words, but it very probably has many more synonyms, as strongly indicated by Wolfgang Winter's unpublished analysis of English and German synonyms of *destroy*, *give*, *skillful*, *intelligent*, *dislike*, and *work*.

GERMAN SCHOOL POLICY

Next, what aspects of German school policy probably contribute to good oral reading?

1. German teachers place greater emphasis than do American teachers on oral reading. In the United States, teacher manuals which accompany beginning textbooks in reading suggest that the teacher help the pupil to acquire habits of silent reading simultaneously with his oral reading. Thereafter, the amount of oral reading gradually declines, and the amount of silent reading increases. The neglect of oral reading in American schools is brought out in Hyatt's study.⁴

⁴A. V. Hyatt, *The Place of Oral Reading in the School Program*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 872. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943.

In Germany, the familiar pattern of reading lesson is for the teacher to stand before the class holding the same book held by all the pupils, with the pupils taking turns reading aloud. The same passage may be read again and again. This procedure continues throughout the grades of the *Volkschule* (the eight-year elementary school) and constitutes the chief basis for judging a child's reading ability. German educators frankly acknowledge this situation and defend it on the ground that oral reading must be stressed to combat the persistence of "inferior" German dialects. Apart from the question of the desirability of this emphasis upon oral reading, it appears to be one factor in the success of German children in word recognition.

2. First-grade pupils who are slow in learning to read are subjected to less pressure in large parts of Germany than is generally the case in the United States. In Hamburg, for example, promotion policy is based upon the assumption that certain children will not learn to read in Grade I. Consequently, pupils are not required to repeat Grade I for failure to learn to read. In one *Volksschule* in Hamburg, with an enrolment of 479, only one child was repeating Grade I during the school year 1951-52, and in that case only because of prolonged absence.

It should not be concluded, however, that German schools have a policy of continuous promotion. In the Hamburg school just referred to, 16 per cent of the enrolment at one time

repeated a grade, most of this non-promotion occurring at the end of Grade II. In another Hamburg school, with an enrolment of 431 pupils in 1951-52, 10 per cent had at one time repeated a grade. Half of these failures occurred at the end of the Grade II. The point is that Grade I is not viewed as an appropriate time to fail children. To be sure, promotion practices vary throughout Germany, and the Hamburg policy is not universal. In the more conservative Munich, for example, information concerning 7,767 first-grade pupils in 1951 shows that 5 per cent of them were required to repeat Grade I.

3. Pupils in the German *Volksschule* customarily remain with the same teacher for three or four years. This plan is not strictly adhered to, but it is generally followed and provides considerable continuity in the child's school experience. It enables teachers better to understand their pupils and to discover their difficulties. This is brought out in Cocklin's study of a similar plan in Upper Merion, Pennsylvania.⁵

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

There are several possible reasons for the apparently greater incidence of word-recognition difficulties among pupils in the United States than in Germany. First, the English language offers difficulties not found in German. The American teacher can do nothing

about changing the language, but he can be aware of the inconsistencies in English phonetics and word structures and of the difficulty and multiplicity of English words. He can be sympathetic and patient with pupils who find the going rough.

Second, although American methods of teaching reading are generally superior to German methods, American schools lack certain features of policy which might facilitate greater success in teaching pupils to recognize words. Unlike American methods, German methods have little scientific basis; they fail to differentiate between pupils of varying reading abilities; they tend to be confined to the use of school readers; and they neglect the building of habits of wide, varied, and critical silent reading. In the United States, supplementary reading materials are supplied, and emphasis is placed upon collecting and comparing various data. Teachers stress pupil discussion and evaluation of reading content, and seldom is reading simply "heard" by the teacher.

Nevertheless, there may be lessons that we can learn. Three practices characterize a substantial number of German schools: (1) generous time allotment to oral reading in Grades I-VIII, (2) virtual absence of nonpromotion in Grade I, and (3) assignment of a teacher to a given class for a sequence of years. Wider adoption of these practices in the United States might lead to an improved elementary school, one by-product of which might be greater skill among American children in word recognition.

⁵ Warren H. Cocklin, "A Study of an Ungraded Primary School." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, School of Education, University of Pennsylvania, 1950.

READINESS FOR LANGUAGE ARTS BEGINS IN THE KINDERGARTEN

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THE KINDERGARTEN is a place to learn as well as a place to play. Kindergarten activities are carried on in a spirit of play because children learn best when they are engaged in interesting and enjoyable activities. The learnings of kindergarten children are many and varied. The children learn and practice the social skills of co-operative work and play. They develop some emotional control. They become familiar with materials and, to a degree, skilful in using them. They sing and express themselves rhythmically. They acquire innumerable concepts, and they gain confidence in using language. With careful planning on the part of the teacher, they can, at the same time, develop language-arts readiness on a level suited to five-year-olds.

The arrival of June 1 need not find every kindergarten child ready to be launched into a preprimer learning program. Indeed, few children are ready for a preprimer program in Grade I without definite readiness activities suited to the development of the six-year-old. A readiness program such as is used at the beginning of Grade I would be too restricting and

too formal for the kindergarten. Five-year-old children need many opportunities, even more than do six-year-olds, to engage in large-muscle activities and exploratory and socializing activities. The kindergarten teacher can daily introduce into the program, informally and within the natural areas of interest, many activities and experiences which will build a foundation of readiness at a level suited to the development of the five-year-old.

Readiness for reading, which is usually, and rightly, given much attention as the child enters Grade I, is only one phase of readiness for language arts. The other language arts—speaking, listening, and writing—also need attention from the readiness point of view. Fortunately, the language arts are interrelated to a high degree (1), and techniques designed to further readiness in one area may very well develop readiness in the other three at the same time. The kindergarten makes much use of speaking and listening activities. While such activities do not overtax immature eyes and muscles, they do build readiness for reading and writing.

DEVELOPING FAVORABLE ATTITUDES

The development of a favorable attitude toward the language arts is the most valuable contribution which the kindergarten can make to language arts readiness. Kindergarten activities in construction should never be allowed to assume more importance than activities involving books, conversation, and other language activities.

Activities such as the following promote favorable attitudes toward the language arts:

Enjoyment of an attractive "reading" center where children will find picture-books and comfortable chairs. The books should be changed frequently; old book friends seem new after they have been absent for a few weeks.

Listening daily while the teacher reads selections which were chosen either by herself or by the children. Through frequent, satisfying experiences with books, children discover that print tells them many interesting things.

Inviting last year's kindergarten children to come and read to the group. Their success with books will stimulate the five-year-olds to anticipate like success and satisfaction.

Reading as an interest, but not as a skill, should be fostered by the kindergarten. Unless a child is extremely advanced, he should not be introduced to actual reading experiences in the kindergarten. The kindergarten year is far too necessary for the development of common background experiences to be used for reading activities, for which most five-year-olds are too immature. This year should be a period

in which children acquire an enlarged and more meaningful vocabulary, develop basic oral-language habits, gain confidence in presenting ideas spontaneously to the group, and learn to listen while others speak.

With added experiences and growing vocabularies, children are eager to express their thoughts, and they begin to want to speak in acceptable patterns. They learn to listen for directions and for information and to derive enjoyment from listening. They begin to see the value which writing has for others, and they may want to try to print their own names.

PROVIDING WIDE EXPERIENCES

Experiences are the foundation for understanding. Without experiences from which to draw, a child cannot talk fluently or with much richness of ideas, cannot grasp the concepts and vocabulary of reading, cannot write creatively, cannot even listen with any degree of understanding. The kindergarten is an ideal setting in which to expand children's experiential background, and, by closely co-operating with the first-grade teacher, the kindergarten teacher can provide the experiences fundamental to understanding the learnings of the primary grades.

A list of the experiences possible for kindergarten children would be endless, but it might include such things as these:

Excursions to farms, business places, and parks

Trips to watch construction of buildings, sidewalks, and roads
 Walks to observe and collect leaves, flowers, and stones
 Observation of trees, birds, and clouds
 Planting and caring for seeds and bulbs
 Planting carrots or sweet potatoes in water to watch the green growth
 Enjoying visits from dogs, cats, chickens, and other small animals
 Feeding and caring for turtles, goldfish, hamsters
 Observing toads, frogs, tadpoles, moths, snails
 Experimenting with magnets, prisms, floating objects
 Building snowmen, flying kites, sailing boats, digging in the sand, running while holding a pinwheel
 Experiencing vicariously through stories, pictures, poems, and songs

Merely providing such experiences will not necessarily build readiness. The child must be made more aware of his experiences and must be able to regard them objectively. This can be accomplished by careful planning with the children and by talking with them about what they see and do. Questions will determine how well children understand their experiences, and they can be helped to clarify their thinking and concepts. Dramatic play revolving about their experiences should be encouraged, and sometimes children will make up stories or poems which serve as records of their experiences. These can be made into a "storybook" to accompany them into Grade I and to be read by themselves some day.

EXTENDING CONCEPTS

Experiences all extend concepts, but there are also many games and ac-

tivities which appeal to children and increase their understandings.

Since words indicating color are met early in the reading program, the color concepts need to be learned. Aids to learning color concepts might include:

- Free use of color-identification words in conversation
- Use of a different colored paper on each work table
- Choosing children for activities according to the colors of the clothes they are wearing
- Storing materials in boxes of various colors
- Collecting objects of one color on a certain shelf or table

Concepts are enlarged and extended when children are taught to classify familiar things into categories, such as animals, food, furniture, toys, and pets. To do this, the group may make an "animal poster" by pasting pictures cut from magazines on large pieces of newsprint. Scrapbooks made from a few sheets of newsprint or construction paper may be individualized for the child according to the subject, for example, "Jean's Toy Book" or "Nancy's Food Book." Colored pictures mounted on poster paper may be sorted into piles of food, pets, or children.

The understanding of prepositions may be developed in games using such properties as a child and the playhouse, a ball and a box, or a toy animal and a barn. The children will soon learn to give such directions as "Put the cow into the barn," and "Put the ball under the box."

The game of "Beckoning" will help to develop the concept of right and left. To play the game, children form a

circle with one child in the center. Silently, the child in the center beckons with his right hand to a child in the circle who tiptoes in, and the two shake right hands. They then change places, and the game continues until each child has been "It." The children might make bright-colored paper bracelets to wear on their right wrists when they play "Looby Loo." They love to watch the fluttering colors when they "give my right hand a shake, shake, shake," and they soon get the "feel" of right and left.

ORAL-LANGUAGE FACILITY

Oral-language facility is of great importance in language-arts readiness. As experiences increase, vocabularies are extended, and the quality of the children's ideas improves. Opportunities to encourage free and spontaneous speech abound in the kindergarten. Dramatic play, the "sharing" times, and the work period furnish ideas to talk about, and even the shy children will forget themselves in their eagerness to tell what they have done. Planning for excursions or other activities provides opportunities for children to think and speak purposefully; and, both during the activity and following it, there are many things to talk about.

Vocabularies may be enlarged through (1) reading and telling stories, making new words meaningful through pictures or activities; (2) encouraging children to tell what they like in stories and why; and (3) dramatizing stories and engaging in dramatic play.

The kindergarten teacher will help to develop spontaneity of speech by (1) taking time to listen to exciting "news" that children bring to school while it is still important to them; (2) being careful never to call attention to deficiencies in the speech of any child, but setting an example of good speech patterns and pleasant voice quality; (3) encouraging children to tell original stories, which may be copied into a loose-leaf scrapbook, with a snapshot of each child to identify his section.

The game of "Finish It" will help to develop sentence sense. To play the game, the teacher begins a sentence, and the children complete it, thinking of as many endings as possible. This game may be varied to fit the activities in progress.

To improve quality of ideas, children may be helped to build many associations around familiar things. To accomplish this, the teacher may ask a series of questions about an object in relation to its size, shape, composition, and uses.

AUDITORY DISCRIMINATION

Auditory acuity is necessary for success in reading and speaking. Auditory discrimination is also needed so that the slight differences between sounds may be recognized and the sounds may be articulated correctly. The kindergarten can provide training in gross discrimination, laying the foundation for the finer distinctions which must be made in Grade I. Habits of attention to sounds, which

will be of great value later, can be established in the kindergarten.

There will be wide differences in the auditory skills possessed by individual children when they enter the kindergarten, varying according to the experiences which they have had in their preschool life. "Ear-training" games are fun for children and help them to think more precisely about the differences between sounds. The games should begin with nonlanguage sounds and gradually become more complex until language sounds are used. Some games which might be used are to have the children:

Identify the sounds that surround them after they have been made aware of them
Distinguish between the sound of the big Indian drum and the little toy drum, both hidden behind a screen

Listen for the number of taps on rhythm sticks, notes struck on the piano, or foot taps on the floor, and reproduce them by clapping

Close their eyes for thirty seconds and then tell what they heard

Tell which of a pair of sounds was louder or softer; for example, the sounds made by a big bell and a little bell, those made by dropping a blackboard eraser and a block of wood, those made by tapping on a table and on a rubber ball

Sing "Up, up, up" as *c*, *e*, and *g* are struck on the piano, rising as they do so; when the notes are reversed, they sing "Down, down, down" and seat themselves

Raise or lower their arms as "the music tells them" while the notes of the octave are played

Go up or down the "steps of the bridge" as the music indicates

Identify sounds made by each of a collection of objects, such as a whistle, rattle, bell,

broom, drum, or an egg beater, behind the screen

Tell which of two tones was longer or shorter

Chant a train sound, louder or softer as the train approaches or goes away

Tell stories in appropriate voices, as for the "Three Bears"

Guess riddles to distinguish between words of gross similarity: "Which is an animal—a puddle or a puppy?"

Identify rhyming words in Mother Goose rhymes

Find pictures of rhyming words on the flannel-graph¹

Play "Hide the Thimble," clapping softly or loudly to indicate "warm or cold" or having the teacher play soft or loud music to give the cue

VISUAL DISCRIMINATION

Another prerequisite for success in the primary grades is visual discrimination, a factor entirely distinct from visual acuity. Adjustment to near-point vision and habits of left-to-right eye-movements may be established in the kindergarten. Kindergarten activities may also develop the ability of children to discriminate between similar shapes, sizes, and forms.

The manipulative toys and games of the kindergarten help pupils to develop the ability to adjust their eyes to, and concentrate on, near work. During these activities, attention can be called to size, shape, and form, thus aiding the children to build a vocabulary of visual terms. Left-to-right eye-movements may be practiced when children name or count objects in a

¹ The flannel-graph is a board covered with flannel, to which pictures or designs backed with felt or sandpaper will adhere without tacking or pinning. Such a device makes possible rapid manipulation of pictures or designs.

row, and when they watch the teacher write in manuscript on a chart as they dictate or when she moves her hand in left-to-right sweeps across the page occasionally as she reads to them. Following a "path" (a dotted line) across a page or the chalkboard from one picture to another, telling stories from a series of pictures on the flannel-graph, or working with mazes will also provide practice in left-to-right movements of eye and hand.

Games which will help to develop visual discrimination are:

Having the children pick out the shapes that are alike and different from a group on the flannel-graph

Having them sort forms cut from colored paper into groups of like size, shape, and color

Having them tell which object from a group on a tray the teacher picked up when she momentarily covered them with a cloth

Having one child leave the room and return to guess which child has left the group to hide behind the screen

Having them use picture lotto games, picture dominoes, wooden jigsaw puzzles, nested cubes, and graduated towers

PRELUDE TO WRITING

The activities of the kindergarten help to develop readiness for learning to write. Large-muscle activities develop gross muscle skills, and the activities of drawing, painting, modeling, cutting, pasting, and coloring with large crayons further develop the co-ordination of hand and eye that is necessary for writing. No attempt to teach writing should be made in the kindergarten; but many children will want to letter their names on their

work and they should be helped to do so. Kindergarten experience will arouse an interest in writing and furnish examples of its usefulness. Often children will dictate things for the teacher to write, such as thank-you notes, invitations, reports of activities, and their own stories. They will come to appreciate the value of knowing how to write and realize that before long they, too, will be learning.

EVALUATION OF THE READINESS ACTIVITIES

The kindergarten teacher should realize the necessity of evaluating her program in terms of its effect upon the children. Only by doing this each year can the teacher be sure that the program is meeting the children's needs. It is possible to construct an informal test which may be used both as a pre-test and as a final test to appraise the growth achieved in concepts, abilities, and information. The teacher may judge physical, social, and emotional development through observation and through analysis of the records of the progress of each child that she will have kept during the year. An intelligence-test score for each child will guide the teacher in the selection of activities for various groups of children and help in evaluating the worth of the total program. Readiness tests may be used in the kindergarten; but many first-grade teachers prefer that the tests not be used until early in Grade I, since the summer recess may significantly affect the results obtained from readiness tests.

Even though five-year-olds enjoy and profit from readiness activities, such activities must not be allowed to become ends or chief points of emphasis in the kindergarten program. The activities are of value only in the degree to which they are related to the interests and everyday life of the kindergarten child.

Any activity used for the furthering of readiness in children should be fun for them. If they do not take pleasure in a particular activity, then it is probably too advanced for their stage of readiness and may become a source of strain or tension to them because they are unable to make the expected response.

Gertrude Hildreth summarizes the ideal readiness program when she says:

A broad preparatory program is more successful than narrow techniques in developing readiness for learning. The activity program . . . with emphasis on functional learning and meaningful experiences, is the best preparation for later progress in learning skills. The activity program affords children natural opportunity for language development, manipulating materials, sensing meanings and relationships, developing work habits, and attaining social maturity [6].

Above all, nothing should be introduced which will interfere with the child's joyous adjustment to his first school, since the happy, stimulating

environment of the kindergarten should lay the foundation for enjoyment of all his future school experiences.

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RESULTS OF A "TOTAL-PUSH" APPROACH TO REMEDIAL EDUCATION

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THIS STUDY reports the short-range results of applying a "total-push" approach to remedial education carried out at the Clinical School of the University of California at Los Angeles. Two interrelated considerations were prominent in its inception: (1) the increasing interest in, and conse-

TABLE 1
DATA ON PUPILS SELECTED FOR STUDY

	Mean	Range
Age.....	12.6 years	8-16 years
Intelligence quotient....	110	90-134
School retardation.....	2.1 years	1.6-3.4 years

quent stress being placed upon, remedial education and (2) an appraisal of the value of an integrated bio-psychosocio approach to this educational problem.

SELECTION OF PUPILS AND ORGANIZATION OF REMEDIAL CLASSES

Ten boys and ten girls between the ages of eight and sixteen years were included in the present study. Each pupil was selected after a thorough diagnostic evaluation, which included medical, psychological, and sociological data. For admission to the reme-

dial program, the pupil had to meet the following criteria: (1) an intelligence quotient of 90 or above; (2) freedom from disabling physical or emotional handicaps; (3) failure in his regular school placement, with retardation of one and one-half years or more in educational achievement; and (4) fulfilment of residence, tuition, and related requirements necessary for his registration and daily attendance at the Clinical School.

For the twenty pupils selected, pertinent data are shown in Table 1. In the initial screening the Stanford-Binet test and the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children were heavily relied upon for assessing intellectual capacity; the Stanford Achievement Test for educational achievement; the Children's Apperception Test, the Rorschach, and interview and case-history information for ascertaining emotional adjustment. A detailed questionnaire was utilized in parent interviews for obtaining information relating to the child's home and general life situation. Special tests devised in the Clinical School were utilized for making detailed analyses of specific educational difficulties.

On admission, the pupil was placed

in one of two classrooms of ten pupils each. Each classroom had a regular full-time remedial teacher, as well as four part-time student teachers to assist the regular teacher. The classrooms were under the general supervision of the clinical supervisor of the school. Part-time recreational leaders handled the athletic-game activities during the fifteen-minute midmorning break. The classes met from 9 to 12 A.M., Monday through Friday, for six weeks in the summer.

Detailed reports were made by each student teacher on his work with given pupils, and these reports were then discussed in a group session under the supervision of the regular classroom teacher. Periodic progress checks were made on all pupils, and revisions in remedial procedures were undertaken when indicated. At the end of the 6-week period, all pupils were retested for educational achievement and other factors which seemed important in assessing changes or progress made.

REMEDIAL PROCEDURES

The essential feature of the methods of instruction employed in the remedial classes was individualization of all procedures to meet the needs of the particular child. Within this general framework, the procedure included:

1. *Creation of a favorable learning atmosphere.*—A number of related factors were involved here: (a) establishment of good pupil-teacher and pupil-group rapport; (b) removal of competition between class members and substitution of competition with the individual's own record; (c) provision of

success experiences by introduction of methods (for example, tracing in learning new words) by which a child could learn.

2. *Creation of a need to learn.*—Concerted efforts were directed toward making the learning situations and materials as meaningful as possible in relation to the child's interests, experiences, and everyday needs.

In a general way, creation of a favorable learning atmosphere and of a need to learn encouraged the reactivation of the child's normal tendencies toward exploration (reality testing) and self-development, which had typically been discouraged by repeated failure in the school situation or by insecurities and emotional difficulties in the home, or by both.

3. *Filling in weaknesses and gaps in the pupil's educational background.*—Since successful education involves progressive structuring of subject material, the aim of filling in weaknesses and gaps necessitated a detailed diagnosis of reading, arithmetic, and other basic skills and the beginning of remedial instruction at a point where the child's previous learning was sufficient to enable him to succeed. It was necessary that such early material seem meaningful to the child rather than appear as just another hopeless beginning with easy and relatively meaningless subject matter.

4. *Remedial work as an approach to the whole person.*—The remedial situation was treated as a total life-situation, inviting the growth and development of the whole person. Emphasis was placed on re-establishing shattered self-confidence, on social interaction and adjustment to the group, on creative self-expression through such activities as finger painting, on motor skills and coordination, on techniques for communicating with other persons, and on ways of coping with his problems that would give the child feelings of adequacy and make the world seem a more meaningful and secure place.

5. *Integration of home environment with school program.*—Every attempt was made, via parent conferences and discussions, to alleviate any home conditions which were

interfering with the child's learning and to substitute positive, enriching experiences conducive to security and self-development. This positive substitution included also matters of diet, rest, and exercise and the provision of interesting and enriching experiences, such as going to circuses and zoos, and taking week-end trips to scenic and historically significant places.

6. *Specific remedial techniques.*—In general, the remedial methods outlined by Fernald were followed.¹ Reading was taught by means of the experiential method, in which the child writes stories on topics meaningful to him in the light of his interests and experiences. In severe cases of reading disability the kinesthetic, or tracing, method was utilized. For more advanced pupils, tachistoscopic and pacing devices were extensively used for improving reading skills. When drill was necessary in any subject field, it was introduced in a game situation which was both enjoyable and meaningful to the student. For the development of concepts, as in various phases of arithmetic or the rules of grammar, varied concrete experiences (for example, playing store) were utilized in helping the child to develop his own generalizations and abstractions. Audio-visual aids were heavily relied upon in arithmetic, as well as in other subject areas. For all subject matter the general sequence of learning was (a) creation of need, (b) concrete experiences, (c) concept development, and (d) application in meaningful problem situations.

7. *Keeping child up with his classes.*—Insofar as possible, the work of each child paralleled that of the public school, and every attempt was made to bring the child up to grade level and to insure his ability to function satisfactorily in his regular school.

CAUSES OF DIFFICULTIES

The present results include findings with respect to the causes of educa-

tional difficulties and educational and personality improvement or changes.

The initial diagnostic material and subsequent classroom evaluations yielded the following breakdown of causes of school retardation in this group of twenty pupils.

Unsuitable teaching methods.—Typically, the use of the wrong teaching methods involved the beginning of reading instruction before the appropriate readiness level was reached, the utilization of exclusively visual and verbal methods of instruction, and similar factors, which resulted in the child's getting behind and hopelessly lost. This category included eight pupils.

Disturbing home situation.—This classification included parental rejection; over-permissiveness to the point where the child felt insecure; overly high parental expectations for the child, so that his actual accomplishments were never acceptable; parental tension and bickering; and broken homes. These conditions were often aggravated by sibling rivalry. This group included seven students.

Illness, absence from school, and frequent changes of school.—The net result of these conditions was a disruption in the child's normal educational program both intellectually and socially. Three students were included in this category.

Miscellaneous factors.—This category included one pupil for whom the causes of educational difficulty were not ascertainable and one pupil who, in spite of a serious personality maladjustment of a deep-seated nature, slipped through the screening examination.

This classification by no means covers all the causes of educational difficulties, since medical factors, special brain defects, and severe personality disturbances were, in general, ruled out in this group by the screening examinations. This categorization

¹ Grace M. Fernald, *Remedial Techniques in Basic School Subjects*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1943.

must also be considered as highly tentative, since the determination of causes in such cases is a difficult and often inaccurate undertaking. Initial causes which got the child off to a slow start may have been cleared up. Similarly, apparent causes may not be the real causes. In addition, more than one of the factors mentioned were found to be operative in several individuals, but the child was listed in the category which seemed to be of the most etiological significance in his particular case.

EDUCATIONAL IMPROVEMENT OR CHANGES

Changes in achievement-test scores are summarized in Table 2 for the areas covered in this study. In interpreting these results, it is important to relate them to the probable progress that would have been made by these children in their regular classrooms for a six-week period. In the light of their previous performance, there would have been an expected mean gain of approximately 0.15 of a grade in educational achievement as compared to a total mean improvement of 0.8 of a grade made in the present study. Only one child in the group failed to improve appreciably, and this was considered to be due to a deep emotional disturbance which impaired his ability to concentrate and function effectively in the school situation. Although there was a tendency for the girls and for the brightest pupils to improve the most, these findings were not statistically significant. It may also be pointed out that these results

were obtained during a summer session, not the most desirable time for remedial work.

BEHAVIORAL CHANGES

Although it is difficult to measure personality changes or to be sure that they are due to the remedial school situation rather than to certain changes taking place in the child's home or general life situation, the evaluations of the student teachers

TABLE 2
IMPROVEMENT IN BASIC SCHOOL SUBJECTS

SUBJECT	GAIN IN GRADE SCORE	
	Mean	Range
Reading.....	0.7	0.0-1.8
Language usage.....	.8	.1-2.7
Literature.....	.8	.0-3.1
Arithmetic.....	1.2	.1-3.4
Social studies.....	.9	.1-1.8
Elementary science.....	.5	.0-1.5
Spelling.....	0.9	0.2-2.5
All subjects.....	0.8	0.0-3.4

and of the regular teachers emphasized some of the following changes.

Development of favorable attitude toward a learning situation.—The most usual and obvious change here was a reconditioning of the child's negative emotional conditioning to a learning situation. During the initial diagnostic session, twelve of the children expressed an active dislike for school and eight others were indifferent. None expressed a liking for school. At the end of their first month of remedial work, twelve of the children expressed a liking for the Clinical School. At the end of the six-week session, only three children expressed indifference to the Clinical School situation and none an active dislike. Several of the parents expressed their surprise that, for the first time, their child enjoyed learning and

was actually disappointed when the summer session was terminated.

Increased self-confidence.—Marked improvement in the child's feelings of security in the school situation were indicated by his decreasing dependence on the teacher, his active and independent work on various class or individual projects, and his ability to tolerate mild competition and occasional failures without feeling unduly devaluated.

Reduction in hostility and deviant behavior.—Although some of the children tended to discharge their hostilities and tensions in emotional blowups and fights during the early phases of the remedial program, this behavior gradually ceased, and, except for the fights initiated by one boy who still remained emotionally disturbed, co-operation and give-and-take within a normal framework of occasional rough-and-tumble play became dominant patterns. This situation was accompanied by a much more friendly and relaxed class atmosphere, which tended to minimize the occasional differences of opinion and outbursts characteristic of children of this age. In addition, damage to property (as in the restrooms) and similar types of destructive behavior practically disappeared after the first two weeks of remedial work.

Increased self-expression and growth.—With increasing self-confidence and better motivation toward learning, these children who were formerly educational failures and negatively conditioned to classroom learning became active participants in their regular school subjects, in expressive activities, such as story-writing and finger painting, and in various projects and social activities.

The over-all behavioral changes were from those of failure, frustration, inferiority, and dislike of school toward self-confidence and intellectual and emotional growth. Of course, not every pupil changed radically, but it was felt that at least sixteen showed substan-

tial progress in personality growth and adjustment. Neither were the results all that might have been hoped for in every case, for it was often impossible to do much about unfavorable home conditions or other negative factors. However, enough changes were effected in the pupils' total life adjustment so that the ensuing mental and emotional changes were encouraging.

SUMMARY

This article reports the results of a six-week "total-push" approach to remedial education with a group of twenty pupils who were severely retarded in their school progress. All but two of these children were considered to be within a normal range in mental, emotional, and physical makeup. The main findings were:

1. Educational retardation was found to result primarily from (a) unsuitable teaching methods; (b) disturbing home conditions; and (c) frequent absence from, or changes of, school.

2. The total mean improvement in achievement-test scores covering seven subject areas was 0.8 of a grade—approximately five times the improvement to be expected had the pupils remained in their regular schools for the same period.

3. Favorable personality changes were noted in most of the pupils.

4. A "total-push" approach to the intellectual and emotional rehabilitation of educationally retarded children was highly effective, despite limitations of facilities and personnel.

EVALUATING THE COLLEGE CURRICULUM FOR STUDENTS MAJORING IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

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TEACHER-EDUCATION PROGRAMS must undergo a continuous evaluation as renewed efforts are made to meet the demands of our times. Any prescribed course of study on the undergraduate level must be evaluated in terms of how well it fulfils its function. At the present there are five criteria which stand out as a possible foundation upon which an evaluation can be made:

1. *Common practice.*—Those things being done by other teacher-education institutions.
2. *Preferred practice.*—Those things which are recommended by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.
3. *State requirements.*—Those courses and practices required by state departments, state boards, or other state agencies.
4. *Public school requirements.*—Those things and practices which administrators and teachers now working in the elementary schools indicate as being needed; helpful preparation for teaching.
5. *Expert opinion (college staff know-how).*—Those practices which can be substantiated by the demands to be met in the field, as well as by modern theory and practice in education.

It is admittedly difficult to employ all five criteria to the fullest potential,

and caution should be exercised in weighing the various criteria. A complete evaluation of the preparation of elementary-school teachers will give each criterion just consideration.

COMMON PRACTICE

A recent unpublished study of twenty-five college catalogues made by Florence Reid, of the Eastern Illinois State College staff, showed conclusively that it was difficult to establish common practice by this procedure. In many of the catalogues, course titles and descriptions were misleading and difficult to classify. Nevertheless, certain requirements are present in common, and one finds prominently mentioned such titles as "Audio-Visual Aids in Education," "Literature in the Grades," "Elementary-School Curriculum," "Psychology of Reading," "Guidance in the Elementary School," and "Music in the Elementary School."

However, various conferences of public school administrators held in the Midwest have pointed up present dissatisfactions with existing college courses for preparation of elementary-school teachers. Instituting a college

course because it is taught elsewhere is probably a poor procedure in curriculum building.

PREFERRED PRACTICE

As a culmination of almost four years of intensive study by all segments of the educational profession, an agency which will be largely responsible for evaluating and accrediting teacher-education programs is in the process of being formed.¹ The new agency, larger and more representative than the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, will be known as the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. It is expected to begin work of accreditation on July 1, 1954.²

PUBLIC SCHOOL REQUIREMENTS

School administrators want and are demanding college courses that properly educate prospective teachers for the elementary school of today. These demands spring, for the most part, from the nature of the duties and responsibilities being placed upon teachers in the self-contained classroom, wherein the teacher teaches all subjects.

There is evidence pointing to the possibility that many college graduates in the elementary-school field are weak in the teaching of certain subjects. Some of these subjects are in the

so-called "special" class (such as art and music), while others are considered to be a bit more on the fundamental side (writing, social science, natural science, for example). The development of all-round teaching competency in the subject material of the elementary school has a direct relation with the degree to which student teachers are given the opportunity to gain firsthand experience during their practice-teaching phase of pre-service education.

STATE REQUIREMENTS

State requirements are often in conflict with the public school requirements and expert opinion. State requirements, in many instances, reflect the special interests of those who were responsible for introducing them. Since many of these persons have left the scene, and the conditions which made the requirements necessary or desirable no longer exist, there is ample cause for questioning the validity of state requirements as a criterion for evaluation of course offerings, even though these requirements cannot be ignored. It would be a shallow program that attempted to satisfy state requirements only, yet thousands of young teachers are being certified annually on this basis alone.

EXPERT OPINION

Let us consider the criterion of expert opinion as judged by the know-how of our college staff workers. Many college instructors seem to know what

¹ *New York Times*, April 20, 1952, Sec. 4, p. E 11.

² T. M. Stinnet, "Superintendents Have a Key Role To Play in Teacher Accreditation," *Nation's Schools*, L (October, 1952), 48-50.

must be done in order to do a better job of preparing elementary-school teachers. At the same time, they seem to be unable to put such a plan into operation. Underlying this inability, in many cases, is an acute lack of adequate training facilities. In spite of the many marvelous improvisations for the training of teachers that are seen on college campuses, it is still a truism that college teacher-education facilities must represent the very best that money can buy.

Then, too, expert opinion sometimes borders on the nebulous. This is the age of clichés and of scintillating lectures. It behooves those who ply the role of expert to ascertain the extent to which their theories will or will not work in a given situation. The criterion of expert opinion has great value if it lends itself readily to research techniques in educating teachers. The fact that there are no "pat" answers for many situations which a teacher will face cannot be altered by glib exhortation.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The best evaluation of the undergraduate program for preparing elementary-school teachers can be made in terms of how well the teachers measure up while on the job. The force of this criterion lends prestige to public school requirements as a basis for evaluating the college program. However, since there is a possibility that many beginning teachers are being measured in terms of their ability to maintain the status quo, the criteria of preferred practice and expert opinion have greater validity in evaluative procedures.

In view of recent developments in evaluating college curriculums that prepare elementary-school teachers, there is great cause to believe that we are facing a better future. It is hoped that those who have the responsibility for teacher education will have a broader basis for justifying the college program than common practice and state requirements.

SELECTED REFERENCES FROM THE LITERATURE ON EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

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THE REFERENCES in the following bibliography from the literature on exceptional children are classified as follows: materials concerned with (1) general references; (2) blind and partially seeing children; (3) crippled children; (4) deaf and hard-of-hearing children; (5) special health problems; (6) speech disorders; (7) subnormal, backward, and dull-normal children; (8) behavior and problem cases and dependent children; (9) juvenile delinquency; and (10) superior and gifted children. The references in the first six classifications were compiled and annotated by Christine P. Ingram; the references in the remaining classifications, by William C. Kvaraceus.

GENERAL REFERENCES

171. BARKER, LOUISE S.; SCHOGGEN, MAX-INE; SCHOGGEN, PHIL; and BARKER, ROGER G. "The Frequency of Physical Disability in Children: A Comparison of Three Sources of Information," *Child Development*, XXIII (September, 1952), 215-26.

Reports a census of physically disabled children of Jefferson County, Kansas, who were referred by laymen, teachers, and physicians. Data were to be used

in deciding on establishment of special classes.

172. BRENN, MABEL A. "Arts and Crafts in an Educational Program for Handicapped Children," *Exceptional Children*, XVIII (May, 1952), 234-35, 238.

Describes how, through the proper use of handicrafts, the handicapped can release natural tensions and inhibitions, learn to share with others, achieve success in creating, and may gain some skills needed for economic independence.

173. BROWN, LILLIAN PENN; GATES, HELEN D.; NOLDER, EVANGELINE L.; and VAN FLEET, BARBARA. "Personality Characteristics of Exceptional Children and of Their Mothers," *Elementary School Journal*, LII (January, 1952), 286-90.

The California Test of Personality was administered to thirty-one exceptional children and to their mothers. The results were used as a means of interesting parents in study groups and self-evaluation.

174. CRUICKSHANK, WILLIAM M. "Team Action with Exceptional Children," *Exceptional Children*, XVIII (May, 1952), 242-44.

Consistency in viewpoint on the part of every member of the team planning for the exceptional child is necessary if the psychological barrier to learning and adjustment is to be overcome by the child.

175. HILL, ARTHUR S. "Legislation Affecting Special Education since 1949," *Excep-*

tional Children, XVIII (December, 1951), 65-67, 90.

Reviews legislation affecting special education in various states, describes new programs and special services extended, and points out the implications and trends of recent legislation.

176. HILL, ARTHUR S. "Special Education Comes of Age," *Crippled Child*, XXIX (April, 1952), 4-5.

Reviews some of the developments in programs for special education of the handicapped and then considers the problems currently besetting special education.

177. LAYCOCK, S. R. "Helping Parents to Accept Their Exceptional Children," *Exceptional Children*, XVIII (February, 1952), 129-32, 160.

The teacher of the exceptional child can help parents to realize the potentialities of their child and to accept him realistically as he is, can set up standards and goals consistent with the child's abilities, and can show parents that the objectives of education can be met, but often by different methods.

178. LEOPOLD, BERTA HOWELL. "The Handicapped Girl and the Group," *Camp Fire Girl*, XXXI (May, 1952), 9, 11.

Convincing reasons are given for including in the Camp Fire group the handicapped girl who is able to participate in more than half of the group activity.

179. LEVY, JOSEPH H. "A Study of Parent Groups for Handicapped Children," *Exceptional Children*, XXIX (October, 1952), 19-23, 26.

Summarizes information about parent groups for different types of handicapped children in Illinois—recent origin, agency co-operation, values and limitations, and community aspects.

180. LOHR, INEZ D. (compiler). *Motion Pictures on Child Life*. Washington: United States Children's Bureau, 1952. Pp. 62.
- A listing of more than four hundred 16 mm films on the social, medical, mental, and

developmental aspects of child life. Grouped under broad subject headings (adolescence, child care, handicapped, and so on), films are briefly described but not evaluated.

181. MACKIE, ROMAINE P. *School Housing for Physically Handicapped Children*. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education Bulletin, 1951, No. 17. Pp. 26.

Should be helpful to all who have to do with the planning of special day schools, centers, or units in regular schools, for single multigrade classes, or for adjustments for handicapped pupils who are able, with assistance, to progress in regular classes.

182. RANDALL, ARNE W. "Art Time for Exceptional Children," *School Arts*, LI (April, 1952), 274-76.

Art can serve as a means of muscular rehabilitation, as an emotional outlet for resolving conflicts and tensions, and as a later means of livelihood for children with various handicaps.

183. SCHOENBOHM, W. B. "Iowa Builds a New Hospital School for Physically Handicapped Children," *Exceptional Children*, XVIII (February, 1952), 133-36.

Describes Iowa's new school for severely handicapped children, located on the campus of the University of Iowa, which has as its basic aims a total program of care, education, and treatment for educable children with severe physical limitations. It will also provide training for doctors, therapists, nurses, teachers, and other workers, and guidance for parents.

184. WEISS, EMALYN R., and MYER, LESTER N. "Psychological Services in the Rural Schools of Pennsylvania," *Exceptional Children*, XIX (October, 1952), 15-18.

Describes psychological and school training for county supervisors in Pennsylvania, their duties, progress to date, and future goals.

BLIND AND PARTIALLY SEEING
CHILDREN¹

185. BINDT, JULIET. *A Handbook for the Blind*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1952. Pp. 244.
Includes, as well as practical ideas and instruction for the blind, a special section for sighted persons on how to treat the blind without making them feel inferior or overprotected.
186. BUELL, CHARLES E. *Recreation for the Blind*. Educational Series, No. 1. New York: American Foundation for the Blind, 1951. Pp. 40.
Discusses hobbies, table games, contests, sports, and active games in which the blind can participate.
187. GEE, EFFIE. "The Partially Seeing Child in the Regular Classroom," *Sight-Saving Review*, XXII (Spring, 1952), 32-35.
Describes practical experiences in the participation of partially seeing students in the regular classroom program.
188. KERBY, C. EDITH. "A Report on Visual Handicaps of Partially Seeing Children," *Exceptional Children*, XVIII (February, 1952), 137-42.
Analyzes data supplied by supervisors and teachers of 7,310 partially seeing children. The majority of defects are developmental, and a large number of children have better vision than the accepted standards for special education.
189. KERBY, C. EDITH. "Causes and Prevention of Blindness in Children of School Age," *Sight-Saving Review*, XXII (Spring, 1952), 22-31.
Presents information based on the eye examinations of 4,248 pupils classified as blind. The pupils were enrolled in 45 residential schools and 15 city school systems in 39 states, the District of Columbia, and the territory of Hawaii in the school year 1949-50. Gives some pertinent comparative data of earlier years.
190. LENDE, HELGA (compiler). *Directory of Activities for the Blind in the United States and Canada*. New York: American Foundation for the Blind, 1952 (ninth edition). Pp. 134.
This *Directory*, which is published biennially, provides information on public and private agencies working for the blind, in national, state, and local fields.
191. LOWENFELD, BERTHOLD. "The Child Who Is Blind," *Exceptional Children*, XIX (December, 1952), 96-102.
Discusses special methodology of the education of the blind, emotional factors involved, and special facilities needed.
192. MACLEAN, RONALD L. "Physical Education for Boys at the Illinois School for the Blind," *International Journal of Education for the Blind*, I (February, 1952), 51-55.
Describes four general activities: swimming, gymnasium, interscholastic athletics, and intermural activities.
193. MOOR, PAULINE M. "A Blind Child, Too, Can Go to Nursery School." Pre-school Series, No. 1. New York: American Foundation for the Blind, 1952. Pp. 16.
A pamphlet helpful for parents of blind children and for nursery-school teachers. Explains the blind child's need for group experience and how he may be included in a group of seeing children.
194. NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS, COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION OF PARTIALLY SEEING CHILDREN. "Education of Partially Seeing Children," *Sight-Saving Review*, XXII (Spring, 1952), 2-6.
Four patterns of education for partially seeing children in the United States are evaluated in regard to present-day educational philosophy, psychology, and method and with respect to principles of child growth, development, and guidance.

¹ See also Item 458 (Taylor) in the list of selected references appearing in the March, 1953, issue of the *School Review*.

195. TUDYMAN, AL, and BERTRAM, FREDERICKA M. "Oakland's Sight Conservation Program," *Sight-Saving Review*, XXII (Summer, 1952), 89-92.

Describes a city school program for the child with visual impairment as to eligibility for enrolment, cumulative records, interdepartmental co-operation, equipment, curriculum, and guidance.

196. YOUNG, MARJORIE A. C. "Certification of Teachers of Partially Seeing Children," *Exceptional Children*, XVIII (April, 1952), 207-15.

Analyzes data on certification of teachers of partiality seeing children obtained from various states. Considers educational standards and personal characteristics.

CRIPPLED CHILDREN

197. AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION. "Psychological Problems of Cerebral Palsy." A Symposium Sponsored by Division of School Psychologists, American Psychological Association, and the National Society for Crippled Children and Adults. Chicago: National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, 1952. Pp. 79.

At a symposium held to consider the psychological problems associated with cerebral palsy, papers presented included some by well-known psychologists.

198. ANDERSON, MARY. "Teaching Aids for a Cerebral Palsy Classroom," *Crippled Child*, XXX (October, 1952), 18-21.

Describes, in words and pictures, materials for developing eye-hand co-ordination for the child beginning school.

199. BICE, HARRY V. *Group Counseling with Mothers of the Cerebral Palsied*. Chicago: National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, 1952. Pp. 42.

Presents the thinking of parents and practical solutions for problems in discipline, self-care, sleeping, eating, education, mental attitudes, family relationships. Stresses the importance of educating the public about cerebral palsy.

200. BRADLEY, MARGERY. "Camping for Crippled Children: II. Organization and Administration," *Physical Therapy Review*, XXXII (June, 1952), 303-5.

States that the organization and administration of camps for handicapped children call for adaptations to meet the special needs of children with crippling conditions.

201. CRUICKSHANK, WILLIAM M. "A Study of the Relation of Physical Disability to Social Adjustment," *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, VI (May-June, 1952), 100-109, 141.

Reports a study of 264 physically handicapped pupils in junior and senior high school. By use of a projective sentence completion test, adolescents' self-concepts were evaluated in regard to the family and to society.

202. DOLL, EDGAR A. "Mental Evaluation of Children with Cerebral Palsy," *Crippled Child*, XXX (June, 1952), 6-7, 28.

For adequate appraisal, the psychologist must have ways to "by-pass" the child's expressive and receptive handicaps to reveal true capacities obscured or distorted by sensory or motor impairments.

203. DOLPHIN, JANE E., and CRUICKSHANK, WILLIAM M. "Tactual Motor Perception of Children with Cerebral Palsy," *Journal of Personality*, XX (June, 1952), 466-71.

The administration of a tactual motor test to thirty normal and thirty cerebral-palsied children revealed significant differences between the two groups.

204. FITZGERALD, GERALD B., and WENELL, CARL. "Nature Recreation for the Crippled Child," *Crippled Child*, XXX (June, 1952), 14-15, 28.

Recreation creating interest in nature can be provided for bed patients through the use of movies, miniature gardens, pets, and so on. For the child in a wheel chair, nature outings, fishing, and picnics on level terrain can be planned.

205. HAEUSSERMANN, ELSE. "Evaluating the Developmental Level of Cerebral Palsy Preschool Children," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXXX (March, 1952), 3-23.
Special tests for cerebral-palsied children are described, together with the requirements that such tests should fulfil. Tests and procedures have been developed by the author over a period of time but are not standardized.
206. HATCHER, CARO C. "Recreational Activities for Cerebral-palsied Children," *Exceptional Children*, XVIII (January, 1952), 102-6.
Suggests such recreational activities as field trips, finger plays, chalk talks, reach-and-grasp games, speech-production games, games to promote better eating habits, and storytelling to promote relaxation and integration of the personality of the child with cerebral palsy.
207. HEILMAN, ANN. "Intelligence in Cerebral Palsy," *Crippled Child*, XXX (August, 1952), 11-13, 28.
As many as five recent psychological studies of the intelligence of cerebral-palsied children report a high incidence of mental defect, about 45 per cent; only about 25 per cent of average intelligence or above; and borderline and dull normal, approximately 30 per cent.
208. HOTTENSTINE, ELLYNMAE. "Home Care of Braces," *Crippled Child*, XXX (June, 1952), 10-11.
Parents or those in charge of the handicapped child are informed of the important points to watch so that maximum benefit will be obtained from the use of the brace.
209. LEVI, JOSEPH, and MICHELSON, BARBARA. "Emotional Problems of Physically Handicapped Adolescents—A Study of Ten Adolescent Boys," *Exceptional Children*, XVIII (April, 1952), 200-206.
Concludes that personality is the most important factor in the rehabilitation process of physically handicapped adolescents and that individual guidance, in addition to group discussions, would be beneficial to most cases.
210. LYONS, ANITA FRANCES. "Personality Adjustment Study: A Summary of the Evaluation of a Group of Physically Handicapped Children Who Received Occupational Therapy," *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, VI (March-April, 1952), 53-55, 88-89.
Reports research in occupational therapy for thirty physically handicapped children attending a special school for handicapped children in Newark, New Jersey. Personality adjustment was evaluated before and after these children received occupational therapy.
211. MILLER, WILLIAM J. "Cerebral Palsy, A Review: 1952," *Crippled Child*, XXIX (February, 1952), 18-19.
Briefly outlines such factors as incidence; types; etiology; percentage of cases caused during the prenatal, natal, and postnatal periods; treatment; and research.
212. MILMAN, DORIS H. "Group Therapy with Parents: An Approach to the Rehabilitation of Physically Handicapped Children," *Journal of Pediatrics*, XLI (July, 1952), 113-16.
Reports an experience with group therapy for parents of physically disabled children in a hospital.
213. PERLSTEIN, MEYER A. "What Teachers Should Know about the Child with Cerebral Palsy," *NEA Journal*, XLI (April, 1952), 215-16.
Discusses briefly the characteristics and types of cerebral palsy, defects associated with it, and the child's intelligence and educability. Goals for rehabilitation are defined and implications for education reviewed.
214. PERRY, E. VIRGINIA. "Teaching the Cerebral Palsied To Read," *Crippled Child*, XXX (October, 1952), 4-7.

Discusses some of the varied and individual problems the teacher meets and methods that have proved helpful.

215. ROAN, MARGARET Z. "Music Can Help the Crippled Child," *Crippled Child*, XXIX (April, 1952), 10-11, 28-29.

Reports research carried on over a period of years at Aidmore Children's Hospital in Atlanta, Georgia, to determine the value of music in a total rehabilitation program for the handicapped child.

216. SALMON, F. CUTHBERT. "Schools for the Handicapped," *School Executive*, LXXI (February, 1952), 46-53.

Illustrates attempts to solve school-building problems for the orthopedically handicapped. Gives plans for a residential school, for a day school, and for modification of an older building to meet the needs of the handicapped, with emphasis on variation in needs.

217. STEGATH, FRED. "Teaching the Child in an Iron Lung," *Exceptional Children*, XVIII (December, 1951), 70-72.

Describes briefly a specific study unit and suggests teaching methods found successful with children placed in iron lungs.

DEAF AND HARD-OF-HEARING CHILDREN

218. ALBRIGHT, M. ARLINE. "Mental Health of Children with Hearing Impairments," *Exceptional Children*, XIX (December, 1952), 107, 110-13, 124.

Reports a survey of 317 children with hearing impairments as revealed by the Mental Health Analysis, a verbal form of measurement. Results indicate some of the possible causes for status of mental health and preventive and remedial therapy.

219. *American Annals of the Deaf*, XCVII (January, 1952), 1-262.

Contains the annual directory of American instructors of the deaf, medical-school personnel for speech and hearing problems, schools and summer camps, periodicals, speech and hearing clinics, teacher-training centers; supplies information on re-

habilitation, special education, and vocational education; and lists state departments of education and health having speech and hearing conservation programs.

220. BERLINSKY, STANLEY. "Measurement of the Intelligence and Personality of the Deaf: A Review of the Literature," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, XVII (March, 1952), 39-54.

Discusses findings and conclusions on intelligence and personality of the deaf as reported in the literature for the past two decades and raises certain questions as to suitability of tools of measurement used.

221. BRILL, RICHARD G. "The Educational Preparation of Oral Teachers of the Deaf," *American Annals of the Deaf*, XCVII (May, 1952), 313-27.

Describes a survey of preparation for teachers of the deaf in both oral and residential schools, analyzes data, and summarizes the findings.

222. DiCARLO, LOUIS M., and DOLPHIN, JANE E. "Social Adjustment and Personality Development of Deaf Children: A Review of Literature," *Exceptional Children*, XVIII (January, 1952), 111-18.

Presents a review of published research findings and a discussion of the limitations in the research methodology used.

223. GUILFORD, FREDERICK R., and HAUG, C. OLAF. "Diagnosis of Deafness in the Very Young Child," *Archives of Otolaryngology*, LV (February, 1952), 101-5.

Discusses shortcomings of conventional audiometric tests which can be applied to the child from two to six years of age and describes in detail an accessory unit called the "Pediaccoumeter," used to motivate and interest the child during the pure-tone test situation.

224. HARDY, WILLIAM G. *Children with Impaired Hearing: Audiologic Perspective*. Children's Bureau Publication No. 326.

Washington: Government Printing Office, 1952. Pp. ii+22.

Presents main topics in audiologic consideration for children with impaired hearing as these topics were prepared for the Midcentury White House Conference.

225. HARDY, WILLIAM G., and PAULS, MIRIAM D. "The Test Situation in PGSR Audiometry," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, XVII (March, 1952), 13-24.
Describes the use of psychogalvanic skin resistance (PGSR) audiometry in testing the hearing of infants and very young children as a means of getting useful facts about the child's hearing mechanism as early as possible.
226. HEDGECOCK, LEROY D. "Counseling the Parents of Acoustically Handicapped Children," *American Annals of the Deaf*, XCVII (May, 1952), 329-39.
A thorough discussion of the many ways that parents can help the child with a hearing problem, including a statement of resources available for parent help.
227. HEINL, STELLA S. "A Library Project To Determine the Suitability of Books for Purchase on the Third Grade Reading Level in the Illinois School for the Deaf, Jacksonville, Illinois," *American Annals of the Deaf*, XCVI (November, 1951), 524-43.
Lists books suitable for purchase on the third-grade level for deaf and hard-of-hearing children.
228. INGVARSSON, IVAR M. "Language Teaching in Schools for the Deaf: Psychological Aspects," *American Annals of the Deaf*, XCVII (March, 1952), 267-81.
Reports how language instruction for deaf children, as outlined in this article, uses material drawn from the children's own experience as a means for developing linguistic form.
229. LESSER, ARTHUR J. *Services for the Child Who Is Hard of Hearing*. Children's Bureau Publication No. 334. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1952. Pp. 28.
A guide for the development of programs for the hard-of-hearing child. Presents facts about audiology and the administration of programs.
230. MACKIE, ROMAINE P. "The School Building and the Child with Impaired Hearing," *American Annals of the Deaf*, XCVI (November, 1951), 494-501.
With adjustments in classroom construction, lighting, and provision of special equipment, speech and hearing teachers can bring about better education for the deaf or hard-of-hearing child who attends regular school classes. Discusses special provisions and types of day-school organization in various cities.
231. MYKLEBUST, HELMER R., and BRUTTEN, MILTON. "A Survey of Research Needs in the Education of the Deaf," *American Annals of the Deaf*, XCVI (November, 1951), 512-23.
Responses on a rating scale by administrators of schools for the deaf show need for research in three areas: (1) teaching problems and curriculum, (2) status of pupils and graduates, and (3) administrative problems.
232. SILVERMAN, S. R., and BENSON, ROBERT W. "Recent Developments in Hearing Aids," *Hearing News*, XX (May, 1952), 4-5, 20, 22.
Factors in design and performance of hearing aids are explained in terms that the layman can understand.
233. TUDYMAN, AL. "Public School Problems in Educating Hard of Hearing Children," *Hearing News*, XX (October, 1952), 18, 20, 22.
Describes function of classes for children with impaired hearing and includes case studies.
234. WHITEHURST, MARY, and MONSEES, EDNA K. *Auditory Training for the*

Deaf. Washington: Volta Bureau, 1952. Pp. 100.

Provides a method and basic lesson material for auditory training for the user of a hearing aid. Will prove helpful for parents and classroom teachers.

235. WOODWARD, HELEN. "A Child and His Hearing Aid," *Volta Review*, LIV (June, 1952), 261-62, 288, 290.

Furnishes instructions for parents of deaf children to help them learn more about hearing aids and instruct their children in the care and use of such aids.

SPECIAL HEALTH PROBLEMS

236. BAKWIN, RUTH MORRIS, and BAKWIN HARRY. "Psychologic Aspects of Pediatrics: Epilepsy," *Journal of Pediatrics*, XXXIX (December, 1951), 776-84.

Reviews the results of studies made with the goal of evaluating the intelligence, personality, emotional development, school records, and occupational opportunities of epileptics. Psychological factors in the treatment of epilepsy are discussed, and the effects of various drugs employed in treatment are compared.

237. BROWNELL, KATHARINE DODGE. "The Child with Rheumatic Fever or Heart Disease," *Exceptional Children*, XIX (November, 1952), 65-67, 70-73, 83.

Discusses the school's contribution to health, emotional, social, educational, and vocational needs.

238. CAHAN, JACOB M. "School Cardiac Services," *Journal of School Health*, XXI (December, 1951), 315-24; XXII (January, 1952), 18-26.

Outlines a pattern for a complete cardiac service to pupils and personnel in a school system. The methods and materials of studies, the work of almost six years, have been briefly tabulated and summarized. Typical case reports and fields of exploration have been cited.

239. COLLINS, A. LOUISE. "Epileptic Intelligence," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, XV (October, 1951) 392-99.

A study of 400 private epileptic patients, including 178 adolescents, as to age at onset, intellectual status, education, type and frequency of seizure, and presence or absence of brain damage.

240. DRY, LEE O. "A School-to-Hospital 'Telephone' Service," *Hospitals*, XXVI (June, 1952), 52-54.

The superintendent of a convalescent home for children describes two-way telephone communication between schools and hospitals which enables hospitalized children to continue their school work.

241. HAIGHT, S. "Use of Supervised Correspondence Study for Home-bound and Isolated Students," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (December, 1952), 60-71.

Reports the use of supervised correspondence study and its values to the individual home-bound student.

242. LEWIS, RICHARD S.; STRAUSS, ALFRED A.; and LEHTINEN, LAURA E. *The Other Child*. New York: Grune & Stratton, 1951. Pp. 108.

Explains, in nontechnical terms for parents and laymen, what a brain-injured child is, his psychopathology, what his management and education should be. It affords new insight and a glimpse of new developments in treatment for the brain-injured child who is not seriously impaired in the motor areas.

243. MICHAEL, NICHOLAS. "The Treatment of Epilepsy," *Ohio State Medical Journal*, XLVIII (January, 1952), 42-43.

Reports the results of the treatment of fifty-one students attending Ohio State University. Findings indicate that, with proper medication and psychotherapy, the great majority of epileptics can be kept free of seizures.

244. PARKER, CORNELIA STRATTON. *Your Child Can Be Happy in Bed*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1952. Pp. 276.

Contains practical suggestions for a great variety of inexpensive handicraft activities

and other sources of amusement for the child confined to bed or convalescing.

245. PARKER, ELOISE C. "Play Therapy," *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, VI (September-October, 1952), 194-96, 216.

Reports a two-year study of the use of toys by hospitalized children and includes a list of toys used most successfully.

246. UNITED STATES CHILDREN'S BUREAU. *The Child with Epilepsy*. Children's Bureau Folder No. 35. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1952. Pp. 16.

Contains useful information for parents who have a child with epilepsy. Describes the condition and outlines the special care required.

SPEECH DISORDERS

247. AMERICAN SPEECH AND HEARING ASSOCIATION. "Speech Disorders and Speech Correction," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, XVII (June, 1952), 129-37.

A basic statement prepared by the Committee on the Midcentury White House Conference, 1950. Subjects covered include the incidence of speech defects, professional training, research needs, and a statement of principles of correction procedures.

248. BACKUS, OLLIE. "The Use of a Group Structure in Speech Therapy," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, XVII (June, 1952), 116-22.

States explicitly some assumptions underlying the use of a group structure in speech therapy. Therapy as a specialized growth process has been located on a continuum in relation to general education, with some distinction between speech therapy and psychotherapy.

249. BAKER, ELMER E., and SOKOLOFF, M. A. "Therapy for Speech Deficiencies Resulting from Acute Bulbar Poliomyelitis Infection," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, XVI (December, 1951), 337-39.

Describes therapeutic techniques used with nineteen patients having speech problems resulting from acute bulbar poliomyelitis infection and states that results were encouraging.

250. GENS, GEORGE W., and BIBBY, M. LOIS. "Congenital Aphasia: A Case Report," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, XVII (March, 1952), 32-38.

Presents a case study to illustrate one type of therapy which may be used for a child with aphasia-like symptomatology.

251. GLASNER, PHILIP J., and DAHL, MARY FRANCES. "Stuttering: A Prophylactic Program for Its Control," *American Journal of Public Health and National Health*, XLII (September, 1952), 1111-15.

States that, through the combined efforts of clinics, public health nurses, family doctors, pediatricians, and community organizations, referral and treatment for reducing the incidence of stuttering have been made possible for preschool children.

252. HIRSCH, INA JEAN, and OTHERS. "Development of Materials for Speech Audiometry," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, XVII (September, 1952), 321-37.

Describes three new recorded tests of the hearing of speech that permit the measurement of two clinical quantities: hearing loss for speech and discrimination loss. Recommendation for the clinical use of these tests is tentative, pending accumulation of findings on larger groups.

253. *The Illinois Plan for Special Education of Exceptional Children: The Speech Defective*. Circular Series E, No. 12. Springfield, Illinois: State Department of Public Instruction, 1952 (revised). Pp. 60.

A revision of a pamphlet issued in 1947, bringing up to date the standards for programs for speech correction in the state of Illinois.

254. JOHNSON, WENDELL; DARLEY, FRED-ERIC L.; and SPIERSTERSBACH, D. C. *Diagnostic Manual in Speech Correction*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. viii+222.
Covers systematically the procedures employed in the examination and diagnosis of speech and voice disorders, with detailed instructions, forms, and background information.
255. JOHNSTON, PHILIP W. "An Efficient Group Screening Test," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, XVII (March, 1952), 8-12.
Describes a method, used experimentally, whereby a complete pure-tone screening test can be given to ten children at a time.
256. MONCUR, JOHN P. "Parental Domination in Stuttering," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, XVII (June, 1952), 155-65.
A group of stutterers comprised of forty-two boys and six girls, ranging in age from sixty-two to ninety-eight months, was matched with a similar group of children, who were non-stutterers. It was concluded that parents of stutterers are more dominant than those of non-stutterers.
257. PLATT, JAMES H. "Speech Disorders and Counseling," *Occupations*, XXX (November, 1951), 102-5.
Advises close co-operation between the speech pathologist and the counselor and gives results of a plan carried out at Michigan State College.
258. SLAUGHTER, WAYNE B., and PHAIR, GRETCHEN MUELLER. "A Complete Cleft Palate Program," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, XVII (June, 1952), 123-28.
Describes history, personnel, and integration of medical, dental, speech, and educational services provided in Wisconsin on behalf of children with cleft palate.
259. UNGER, DOROTHY. "Prepare Your Child for Speech by Training Speech Muscles through Feeding," *Crippled Child*, XXIX (February, 1952), 6-7, 28.
Gives suggestions for mothers of cerebral-palsied children to follow in teaching their children the movements of sucking, chewing, and swallowing necessary not only for eating but for the development of speech.
260. WESTLAKE, HAROLD. *A System for Developing Speech with Cerebral Palsied Children*. Chicago: National Society for Crippled Children, 1952. Pp. 16.
Describes nature of the problem and the approach and methods for developing speech with children who are seriously handicapped by cerebral palsy.
261. WISCHNER, GEORGE J. "An Experimental Approach to Expectancy and Anxiety in Stuttering Behavior," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, XVII (June, 1952), 139-54.
Analyzes terms of "expectancy" and "anxiety" as they are used in literature on stuttering behavior and describes significant studies of anxiety in stuttering as a form of maladaptive behavior.
262. YAUCH, WILBUR A. "The Role of a Speech Correctionist in the Public School," *Exceptional Children*, XVIII (January, 1952), 97-101.
A plan is offered to the speech correctionist by which greater understanding and closer co-operation of principals and teachers can be enlisted.

SUBNORMAL, BACKWARD, AND DULL-NORMAL CHILDREN

263. BIJOU, SIDNEY W. "The Special Problem of Motivation in the Academic Learning of the Retarded Child," *Exceptional Children*, XIX (December, 1952), 117-19.
A brief discourse on the problem of motivation of the retarded child, with a suggested classroom plan that has been in operation with this type of child for ten years.

264. CLARK, HELEN. "The First Two Weeks in Your Special Class," *Instructor*, LXII (September, 1952), 50.
Specific suggestions to assist in the organizational problems of the special class.
265. CLAYTOR, MAE P. "State Certification Requirements for Teachers of Atypical Children," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXXX (June, 1952), 211-20.
Describes the certification requirements in education for special-class teachers in twenty-two states and the District of Columbia.
266. DINSMORE, MAYME. "Teaching Specialized Subjects to the Mentally Defective," *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, LVII (July, 1952), 50-55.
Discusses the most significant factors involved in the teaching of music, art, and physical education to the mentally retarded.
267. DODDS, B. L. "What Is a Good Program for the Slow Learner?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 329-33.
Defines the nature of the educational problem faced by the teacher of the slow learner and presents six essential characteristics of an effective program.
268. FLIEGLER, LOUIS A. "Play Acting with the Mentally Retarded," *Exceptional Children*, XIX (November, 1952), 56-60.
Reports the results of using dramatic play with a retarded class as an avenue to learning.
269. GILBERT, J. H. "A Way To Teach Safety to the Mentally Retarded," *Safety Education*, XXXI (April, 1952), 8-9.
Suggests units of safety to be used with fifteen- and sixteen-year-old mentally retarded pupils that will aid them in fulfilling their needs when employed in the typical unskilled jobs they obtain.
270. HILL, ARTHUR S. *The Forward Look: The Severely Retarded Child Goes to School*. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education Bulletin 1952, No. 11. Pp. vi+54.
Suggests the type of program needed for severely retarded children who are unable to profit from the regular special class and discusses problems in organizing such classes. Describes programs of schools already offering this type of training. Also provides a good bibliography.
271. HUNGERFORD, RICHARD H.; DEPROSPPO, CHRIS J.; and ROSENZWEIG, LOUIS. "Education of the Mentally Handicapped in Childhood and Adolescence," *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, LVII (October, 1952), 214-28.
Reveals the past and present philosophies of special education and discusses the essentials of an effective program for "non-academic" pupils. Describes the programs provided for these children in a number of cities.
272. KARLIN, ISAAC W., and STRAZZULLA, MILLICENT. "Speech and Language Problems of Mentally Deficient Children," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, XVII (September, 1952), 286-94.
Reports a study of speech defects and defects in language function of fifty retarded children ranging in age from three to fourteen years and indicates the treatment of these cases. Also provides a bibliography.
273. KIRK, SAMUEL A. "Experiments in the Early Training of the Mentally Retarded," *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, LVI (April, 1952), 692-700.
Preliminary report of a three-year experiment designed to determine the effect of a specialized educational preschool program on the mental and social development of mentally handicapped children and on subsequent school adjustment of the children during the first two years of school. Gives strong support to the possibilities of rehabilitation through specialized preschools for many children.

274. MULLEN, FRANCES A. "Mentally Retarded Youth Find Jobs," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXI (October, 1952), 20-25.
A follow-up study of two hundred former special-class children, including white and Negro boys and girls. The range of occupations and the amount of unemployment are noted, and some constructive planning resulting from the survey is indicated.
275. NOLAN, WILLIAM J. *Building a Community's Curriculum for the Mentally Handicapped*. Bulletin No. 58. Hartford, Connecticut: State Department of Education, October, 1952. Pp. 24.
A guide to assist communities in outlining a workable curriculum to fit their own needs. Gives suggestions of areas that need consideration and supplies examples of the topics that may be within the scope of the groups working in these areas. An extensive bibliography is included.
276. ROANE, O. M. "Brownsville Has the Answer," *Texas Outlook*, XXXVI (September, 1952), 14-15.
A brief, illustrated report of the establishment of a new technical school for boys and girls retarded by three years or more.
277. SARASON, SEYMOUR B. *Psychological Problems in Mental Deficiency*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1953. Pp. 402.
A revision of the 1949 edition, which presented a critical evaluation of current psychological theories and practices. Three added chapters deal with the interpretation of mental deficiency to parents, the problem of institutionalization, and professional training.
278. SHAFTEL, GEORGE A. "Human Relations and the Low IQ," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (November, 1952), 422-23.
Reports briefly a project on special education at Whittier (California) High School and some derived basic principles for improvement of the education of slow learners.
279. SHARP, HEBER C. "Glutamic-Acid Feeding," *Exceptional Children*, XVIII (May, 1952), 230-33.
Presents a critical review of the literature concerning the effects of glutamic-acid feeding on mental functioning.
280. STEIN, CORA B. "Non-academically Speaking," *Science Teacher*, XIX (October, 1952), 212-14.
Reports a different approach to the problem of teaching biology to a "non-academic" group of high-school Sophomores.
281. TUCKER, RUEL E. "Program for Slow Learners," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 333-37.
Provides specific suggestions and basic considerations for improving the high-school program for the slow learner.
282. YEPSEN, LLOYD N. "Counseling the Mentally Retarded," *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, LVII (October, 1952), 205-13.
Considers the value and limitations of counseling with the mentally retarded and discusses the various techniques of counseling when used with these children.

BEHAVIOR AND PROBLEM CASES AND DEPENDENT CHILDREN¹

283. ABRAHAMSON, STEPHEN. "Each Teacher Chose a Problem Child," *Clearing House*, XXVI (May, 1952), 557-59.
Describes how a group of teachers was helped to understand and meet the individual needs of pupils in several Connecticut communities through a research project dealing with improving human relations in the classroom.
284. GRIFFITHS, WILLIAM. *Behavior Difficulties of Children as Perceived and Judged*

¹ See also Item 31 (Kaplan) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1953, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*; also Item 597 (Topp) in the list appearing in the September, 1952, issue of the *School Review*.

by *Parents, Teachers, and Children Themselves*. University of Minnesota, Institute of Child Welfare Monograph Series No. 25. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1952. Pp. xii+116.

Compares what children believe to be their own difficulties with what parents and teachers believe these problems to be. Deals primarily with (1) children's awareness of their own problems and (2) the relation of children's behavior to socioeconomic status.

285. PELZEL, HELENE. "Clearing the Air," *Childhood Education*, XXIX (November, 1952), 115-18.

Discusses the emotional atmosphere of the classroom and how it can contribute to the building of wholesome and stable personalities. Emphasizes the needs of the teacher and pupil and how they can be met in the classroom.

286. SCOTT, GUY. "Leadership in Studying Behavior Problems," *National Elementary Principal*, XXXII (September, 1952), 56-60.

Suggests techniques of studying behavior problems by working backward toward underlying principles as an aid to the classroom teacher in understanding child behavior.

287. TOWLE, CAROLYN. "Threatening Children a Threat," *American Childhood*, XXXVIII (October, 1952), 10-11.

Considers the danger and the problems created by using threats to discipline children.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY²

288. BECK, BERTRAM M. *Five States: A Study of the Youth Authority Program as Promulgated by the American Law Institute*. Philadelphia: American Law Institute, 1951. Pp. 146.

Presents a critical appraisal of the state programs under way in the pattern of the Youth Authority Act as first established in California and presents an orientation for future developments.

289. BLOCK, BERTRAM J., and GLICK, SELMA J. *Recidivism at the Hawthorne-Cedar Knolls School*. Research Monograph No. 2. New York: Jewish Board of Guardians, March, 1952. Pp. 40.

Applied the Glueck prediction tables to a sampling of one hundred boys. A follow-up after a five-year period indicates that the prediction tables could have foretold both the potentials of delinquency in this group and the probable rate of recidivism.

290. *The Child*, XVII (December, 1952), 50-71.

The entire issue of this number is devoted to a discussion of various aspects of the delinquency problem. Well-known experts discuss work of the juvenile courts, detention, police, training schools, and other significant phases of the problem of prevention and control. Recommendation for community action are presented.

291. COHEN, FRANK J. *Children in Trouble*. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1952. Pp. xiv+252.

A report of an experiment in institutional care based on material gathered during the Lavanburg Corner House Training program for personnel in child-care institutions.

292. "Conference on Control of Juvenile Delinquency, Summary of Proceedings," Washington: Federal Security Agency, Children's Bureau, 1952. Pp. 31 (mimeographed).

Presents the thinking of a group of experts concerning all phases of delinquency prevention and control, together with a statement on research as related to delinquency. A brief but well-thought-out report that may constitute a definitive statement concerning current problems of aiding the delinquent child.

² See also Item 588 (Glueck) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1952, issue of the *School Review*.

293. DEHAAN, ROBERT F., and HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J. "Types of Children Who Are To Be Helped: The Potentially Maladjusted," *A Community Youth Development Program*, pp. 28-37. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 75. Youth Development Series, No. 1. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1952.
Two general types—withdrawn and aggressively maladjusted children—are discussed. A list of behavioral characteristics of boys and girls vulnerable to delinquency is included.
294. GANS, ROMA. "Juvenile Delinquency," *NEA Journal*, XLI (November, 1952), 497-99.
Presents a general discussion and many specific issues related to the two problems of how all schools can be stimulated to face their role in helping children and youth to grow morally and how the schools' program can be improved and extended so as to help lessen at once, and ultimately help eliminate, wholesale juvenile delinquency.
295. GERSTEN, CHARLES. "Group Therapy with Institutionalized Juvenile Delinquents," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXXX (March, 1952), 35-64.
An experimental evaluation of changes in observed behavior and in intellectual, emotional, and social adjustments of male delinquents participating in group therapy for a period of twenty weekly sessions. Finds that the experimental group generally profited against all but one of the evaluative criteria.
296. GOUGH, HARRISON G., and PETERSON, DONALD R. "The Identification and Measurement of Predispositional Factors in Crime and Delinquency," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, XVI (June, 1952), 207-13.
Applies a role-taking theory of psychopathy to the practical problem of identification and measurement of predispositional factors in crime and delinquency.
297. KVARACEUS, WILLIAM C. "School and Home Co-operate To Meet Juvenile Delinquency," *Educational Leadership*, X (January, 1953), 223-28.
Points out how an effective school and a good home working hand in hand exert a reciprocal force in a community program of prevention and control of juvenile delinquency. Offers specific suggestions as to how home can help school and how school can aid the home in a bedrock approach to delinquency prevention and control.
298. LOGAN, J. E. "My Class Tackles the Youth Problem," *Clearing House*, XXVII (November, 1952), 146-48.
A report of a discussion of juvenile delinquency by adolescents, from which, the author suggests, the participants probably gained a better insight into the problems of their own generation.
299. SHIMIZU, YOSHIHIRO. "The Problems of Juvenile Delinquency in Post-War Japan," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XXVI (September, 1952), 32-36.
A report of the extent of the increase in delinquency in Japan and the present trends, followed by a discussion of the causes for the conditions.
300. "A Tragedy of Our Times," *Texas Outlook*, XXXVI (September, 1952), 10-13.
Discusses the causes of delinquency and the care of the delinquent in Texas.

SUPERIOR AND GIFTED CHILDREN

301. ALPERN, HYMEN. "How Can the School Meet Needs of Gifted and Superior Students?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 110-17.
A general discussion of definition, administrative provisions, governmental aid, curriculum, and methods in dealing with the gifted pupil.
302. BARBE, WALTER. "Study of the Reading of Gifted High-School Students,"

Educational Administration and Supervision, XXXVIII (March, 1952), 148-54.

A study of the reading backgrounds of 103 high-school Freshmen and Sophomores with intelligence quotients of 130 or more. Indicates that some gifted children are doing only a limited amount of outside reading.

303. GABRIEL, FLORENCE. "Challenging the Superior Child," *National Elementary Principal*, XXXII (September, 1952), 224-28.

Describes the attempt of one community to provide for the gifted child at the elementary-school level. Indicates the opportunities provided in social studies, science, mathematics, art, and music.

304. HILDRETH, GERTRUDE HOWELL, in collaboration with FLORENCE N. BRUMBAUGH and FRANK T. WILSON. *Educating Gifted Children in Hunter College Elementary School*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. x+272.

Summarizes the experiences of Hunter College staff in their special elementary-school program for mentally gifted children during the period 1941-51. This cooperatively written report covers a wide range of topics, including the organization of the school, goals and curriculum, methods, the teacher of the gifted, the role of the parent, and evaluation of outcomes.

305. KELLY, INEZ. "Challenging the Gifted Student," *School Life*, XXXV (November, 1952), 27-28.

Describes in detail some specific practices introduced by one mathematics teacher in meeting the challenge presented by superior students in her classes.

306. KNIGHT, EDGAR W. "Some Disturbing Educational Contradictions," *School and Society*, LXXVI (November 29, 1952), 337-41.

Evidences grave concern because of the lack of proper education for teachers and

for teachers of teachers and the lack of attention by schools and colleges to gifted and talented students. Stresses that little has been done for the gifted despite the concern of educators over the years.

307. MAYBURY, MARGARET W. "Selection of Materials by Nursery School Children of Superior Mental Intelligence," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVI (September, 1952), 17-31.

Enumerates the materials chosen by a small group of nursery-school children of high mental ability when given the opportunity to choose within a controlled environment. Notes differences between the choices of girls and boys, as well as changes in selection over a period of time.

308. REX, BUCK R., JR. "The Gifted Child in the Heterogeneous Class," *Exceptional Children*, XIX (December, 1952), 117-20.

A brief report of some of the provisions for the gifted child at the various grade levels in the public schools of Passaic, New Jersey.

309. WITTY, PAUL. "Educational Provision for Gifted Children," *School and Society*, LXXVI (September 20, 1952), 177-81.

Reviews recently published articles and books reporting adaptations for gifted children on the elementary- and secondary-school levels. Concludes that present measures for caring for the gifted are meager and ineffective.

310. WITTY, PAUL. "Gifted Children, Our Nation's Greatest Resource," *Today's Health*, XXX (December, 1952), 18-21.

Laments the fact that there are so few opportunities for the gifted child and discusses some causes for this lack. Suggestions are given on how parent or teacher might recognize this type of child. In addition, some recommendations are made to parents for assisting the child to make more of his potentialities.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

HILDA TABA, ELIZABETH HALL BRADY, and JOHN T. ROBINSON, *Intergroup Education in Public Schools: Experimental Programs Sponsored by the Project in Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools—Theory, Practice, and In-service Education*. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1952. Pp. xii+338. \$4.00.

Daily headlines in newspapers throughout the country serve to focus attention on problems of intergroup relations. Increased consideration has been given to the area since World War II, when an unprecedented mobility of population brought out the great difference between the expectations for social, political, and civic acceptance held by many people and the realities they faced. It was because of the many pressures and conflicts which developed between minority groups during this critical period that the study on intergroup education was conceived. It was developed under the professional guidance of the American Council on Education. The action research for the study was carried on by a staff of consultants working with the leadership of Hilda Taba in eighteen selected schools and school systems located throughout the country.

Intergroup Education in Public Schools is the parent volume of several reports in the study. It is the over-all volume which gives the setting and describes the work of the entire study. It includes the story of the project; fundamental considerations and problems in developing a program of intergroup education; the basic considerations used by the staff in curriculum development; a report of the development of two areas of study (group life in school and school-community relations); and a description of ways of work-

ing, including general statements and principles as well as detailed reports of the development of some projects.

Two features of the study of intergroup education make the reports of the work done on the several projects especially significant for educational workers: first, the removal of the study from theoretical analysis to the day-to-day living in the community; and second, the broadening of the definition of the term "intergroup relations."

Arthur S. Adams, president of the American Council on Education writes:

Sociologists, psychologists, and others had long recognized the problem of group tensions and of individual status. But for the most part their approach has been analytical and descriptive with major emphasis upon negative factors—social disorganization, individual maladjustment, prejudice and stereotypes. . . . The staff of the project utilized much that had been learned in sociology, psychology, and education, and pioneered in the development of a co-ordinated and positive approach in which wholesome intergroup relations became a matter of day-to-day living in the school and the community [p. v].

Customarily, the term "intergroup relations" has been associated with the idea of minority groups, either racial or religious, in conflict, prohibiting the functioning of some unit of society. For purposes of the project, it became increasingly obvious that "problems of human and group relations turn up wherever there are human beings, that they range in acuteness and scope from major tensions to the ordinary difficulties of everyday life, and that barriers to interpersonal relations and understanding develop in infinite variety in every community, neighborhood, and school" (p. 22). Consequently, these understandings led to "one basic policy prin-

ciple of the project, namely, that *schools needed to be concerned with divisions and difficulties along all these lines, in place of concentrating only on those divisions that were of greatest concern nationally*" (p. 24).

Today, many teachers, curriculum workers, and administrators are convinced that the schools ought to be giving attention to the area of intergroup and interpersonal relations. The feeling that they do not know how to begin work on this elusive and seemingly insurmountable task has kept many educational workers from making a direct attack on it. *Intergroup Education in Public Schools* indicates the techniques which teachers used in identifying intergroup and interpersonal problems of individuals and of classroom and school groups. Educational workers will find real help in the descriptions of these techniques and of the methods and materials used for developing school programs in this area.

The authors of this volume show a refreshing and helpful forthrightness in identifying failures as well as successes, situations they did not anticipate which proved to be stumbling blocks, and insights they developed as they worked.

Basic to all the work done with the co-operating schools in the intergroup study were two concepts which should be pointed up here. One was the idea that each teacher and each school should work with the individual children, classroom groups, and school group to identify intergroup and interpersonal problems. The second was that, to improve interpersonal and intergroup relations, continuous attention should be given to this area; a concept which denies the advisability of introducing a special subject or unit in the elementary school or special courses or series of units in the high school.

Reading the descriptions of ways developed by teachers to achieve sequential continuity makes one mindful that attention must be given to continuous study of individual pupils and of classroom and school groups. Many will disagree with the idea sug-

gested in the report that sequential continuity is achieved by putting a "program" on paper. Rather, it is achieved by continually studying the individual learner to be sure that for him there is continuity in the learning situation. Without continuous planning and evaluation such a program may quickly become crystallized and far removed from the problems confronting a particular group of learners.

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HILDE BRUCH, M.D., *Don't Be Afraid of Your Child: A Guide for Perplexed Parents*. New York 3: Farrar, Straus, & Young, 1952. Pp. 298. \$3.75.

As this reviewer was reading Dr. Hilde Bruch's recently published book *Don't Be Afraid of Your Child*, one persistent question arose to puzzle her as she perused chapter after chapter: *How could a pediatrician now practicing child psychiatry and psychoanalysis with such a sound and common-sense viewpoint be so out of contact with present-day parents and schools?* Not until one reaches the last chapter is the dilemma resolved. On page 291 the author says:

Now that I have come to the last chapter, I have a confession to make. There is an error running through this book, an error of which I was unaware when I began to write. I slowly recognized that it is wrong, a misstatement of fact, to speak of "modern parents" when referring to parents who completely surrendered to the changing fads in child psychology. It would have been more correct to speak of them as "the modern parents of yesterday."

Then Dr. Bruch goes on to describe enthusiastically the kind of soundly balanced, sensible parents who make working with them such a satisfying experience today. If Dr. Bruch discovered her error by the time she reached the last chapter, why did she not revise her manuscript before publication?

One wishes she had, because there is so much in her book that does serve as a sound and common-sense "Guide for Perplexed Parents," which she states in her subtitle as the purpose of her book.

This reviewer would thoroughly agree with most of the author's major positions: that most parents are eager to do the best for their children; that parents should be helped to gain confidence in their own judgments instead of developing feelings of anxiety and guilt over their shortcomings and mistakes; that they should be encouraged to feel that they themselves are adequate to fulfil successfully their roles as parents and need not feel helplessly adrift among "experts" whose theories of child-rearing sometimes swing from one extreme to the other. Since these are the prevailing viewpoints among those who are today carrying on "parent education," why does Dr. Bruch seem to have so little or no confidence in most programs of parent education? Perhaps because she was thinking of the *programs of yesterday* as well as "the parents of yesterday." Or perhaps it is because her background is entirely that of medical practice that she believes "Meaningful psychological help can be given only in an individualized way" (p. 6).

Certainly, all competent professional workers who attempt to work with groups of parents would agree with Dr. Bruch that there are no absolute rules that fit all cases because each situation is unique and every parent and every child is an "individual." But that does not mean that parents do not find it helpful to meet in groups devoted to study and discussion of child development

and guidance and to consideration of common problems that occur in bringing up most children. In fact, through just such groups they can acquire some of the very basic knowledge Dr. Bruch thinks "can be of real help to parents if correctly applied" (p. 6).

Those who specialize in parent education today would heartily indorse Dr. Bruch's warning against the powerful tendency prevalent in our culture to "want to be told an exact answer" (p. 11). Today's parent-education programs emphasize the purpose of helping parents develop the ability to find their own answers to the everyday questions involved in guiding their growing children, and of leading them to seek the help of professionally trained specialists for the more complex and serious problems which they feel unable to solve.

It is heart-warming to find a psychoanalyst like Dr. Bruch recognizing that psychoanalytic theories of child-rearing are derived primarily from analysis of adult neurotic patients (p. 42). She also points out: "Although more than half a century has passed since Freud reported his first observations, extraordinarily little has been done to supply detailed evidence as to the correctness of the psychoanalytic theories if applied in a preventive way" (p. 43).

Such an objective, soundly balanced, common-sense viewpoint will make this book helpful to many perplexed parents, despite the limitations mentioned by this reviewer.

ETHEL KAWIN

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY,
AND PRACTICE

Adapting the Secondary-School Program to the Needs of Youth. Fifty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of

Education, Part I. Prepared by the Society's Committee, WILLIAM G. BRINK, chairman. Edited by NELSON B. HENRY. Chicago 37: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. xiv + 316. Cloth, \$3.50; paper, \$2.75.

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Bulletin 1952, No. 6—*Higher Education in France: A Handbook of Information concerning Fields of Study in Each Institution* by EDITH KAHLER. Pp. viii+50. \$0.20.
Bulletin 1952, No. 10—*Education in Turkey* by ABUL H. K. SASSANI. Pp. viii+96. \$0.30.
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THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL

Volume LIII

*

MAY 1953

*

Number 9

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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SIGNIFICANT FORCES AND ISSUES IN EDUCATION

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS in the field of education are replete with discussions of the problems faced by teachers, administrators, children, and parents. Basic to an understanding of a majority of these problems is the recognition of five major issues ably delineated and discussed by Ralph W. Tyler, dean of the Division of Social Sciences at the University of Chicago. His article, entitled "Facing Up to the Big Issues," appeared in *Washington Education* and other state education association journals.

The first issue that he considered is the effect of two opposing concepts of education, one of which emphasizes problem-solving, while the other stresses memorization of factual knowledge. Dean Tyler points out that, because of the rapidity of change in our society, pupils must learn to

solve new problems in different ways if future social progress is to be assured. Many methods of attacking problems are required by teachers who choose to prepare their pupils to use the problem-solving method of meeting their own difficulties. But such considerations are useless if education is seen as passing on the preferences of the past.

A second major issue is "the role of teacher, parent, and community in teaching the child." Stress is laid on the relation of the home environment to the ease with which a child learns, and the positive and the negative aspects of community influence are placed in their proper perspectives.

A third issue is the current serious shortage of teachers, which will probably become increasingly acute. As a countermeasure in this emergency, Tyler suggests experimentation with new ways of working with children. Experience with nursing education

during the war showed that teams of persons possessing varying skills can work together to provide learning experiences for many more students than would be possible on the thirty-to-one formula. "At certain places in the educational process those more trained can be helped by those less trained as they work with pupils." Dean Tyler believes the schools will have to use some such means to meet the teacher shortage, as "the problem cannot be solved simply by making the profession more attractive to young people." Such a suggestion will undoubtedly be unpopular with many educators, yet it is one of the few positive proposals which have been heard in discussions of methods of relieving teacher shortages.

A fourth force which should be used constructively, rather than merely being criticized, is television. Learning to use this powerful medium of communication as a means of education is not only an opportunity but an urgent challenge to all educators.

Finally, Tyler declares that "reading is a key to success" because in schools verbal facility is required for social understanding and liberal education. He recognizes that schools are enrolling a wider range of our population and that the increased heterogeneity means that, until "we are all thinking of and working on the problem of how all people can develop into wholesome, happy individuals, we are only mouthing jargon to talk about equal opportunity."

The important issues summarized in the preceding paragraphs are suffi-

cient to challenge the best thinkers and research workers in the field of education. Smaller segments of these problems have recently been receiving increased emphasis. One of these segments is how to meet the challenge of equal educational opportunity for all by providing for the education of pupils who cannot easily adapt to regular classroom activities.

Educating the mentally inferior Equal opportunity, however, does not mean identical opportunity. It means "educational opportunities adapted to the particular needs and abilities of each individual." Ingeborg Severson explains this concept in an article entitled "Philosophy of Special Education Cited," in *Teaching Progress* for November, 1952, a bulletin published by the Milwaukee public schools. The entire issue is devoted to a description of aims, procedures, and evaluation of the education of exceptional children. The Milwaukee school system provides services for children who are (1) orthopedically handicapped, (2) deaf or partially deaf, (3) blind or partially sighted, (4) cardiac cases, (5) chronically ill, (6) defective in speech, (7) slow learners, (8) educationally retarded, (9) mentally retarded, (10) severely retarded mentally (those with intelligence quotients of 35-50), (11) in need of bedside or home teaching, and (12) having special difficulty with reading. It is estimated that 5,914 pupils in Milwaukee have received special services of the types mentioned during 1952-53. These

children are much more fortunate than hundreds of thousands elsewhere in the United States.

Many of the types of education for exceptional children reported in this issue of *Teaching Progress* are similar to those provided by other school systems. One, however, appears to be unique: the training for severely mentally handicapped. The description of this training, also written by Severson, begins by stating that in the summer of 1951, the Wisconsin legislature passed a bill which enables schools to establish classes for children with intelligence quotients ranging from 35 to 50. The first two classes for such children were opened in January, 1952, in response to a petition from parents. The following September, two other classes were added, thus accommodating forty children. The demand for these classes arose because of overcrowded conditions in the state institutions usually accepting them but also because of the parents' desire to provide care and education for their severely retarded children just as for any others. The classes are considered educative rather than custodial—a condition which is not always characteristic of state schools.

Added impetus is given to the movement of providing for children with very low intelligence in *The Forward Look: The Severely Retarded Child Goes to School* by Arthur S. Hill (Federal Security Agency, Office of Education Bulletin 1952, No. 11. \$0.20). The bulletin is the outcome of a conference sponsored by the Office of Education and members of a committee of the

National Association of State Directors of Special Education. The Foreword points up the problem whether state and local communities should support special classes for severely retarded children "who demonstrate competence for personal adjustment and a limited degree of participation in useful and purposeful activity."

An estimate of the number of pupils who might be enrolled in these classes reveals that less than one-half of one per cent of the child population would be expected. Three major purposes for establishing classes for severely retarded trainable children are listed by Hill as follows: (1) to provide training experiences which will enable these children to develop their limited abilities to the fullest extent possible; (2) to provide an opportunity for observation and further study of children who do not respond well because of emotional conflicts, social immaturity, speech retardation, or physical involvements; and (3) to supplement initial tests by observation which will select those children who are trainable and help prepare parents to accept institutional placement for those who are not trainable.

Hill lists six goals for the training programs: adequate habits of personal behavior, efficient communication skills, useful co-ordinations, acceptable habits of work, adjustment to social situations, and willingness to follow directions. The daily programs for two types of classes are outlined as a guide to those who wish to establish similar classes. An important aspect of the program is proper guidance

and direction for parents. Emphasis is also placed upon the need for assistance by other agencies and the community generally.

Of special interest is the organization of parents known as the National Association for Retarded Children. The membership in this group has increased markedly in the past few years. The association and affiliated groups often sponsor private classes until the community is willing to incorporate this instruction into the school program. The parent groups are also active in securing state legislation to provide special education for mentally retarded children who are trainable.

Educating the gifted The children who appear to be most neglected in many schools are the gifted. It is encouraging, therefore, to discover an increasing number of articles, books, and pamphlets dealing with varying aspects of education for the gifted.

Helping the Gifted Child by Paul Witty is a Better Living Booklet for Parents and Teachers published by Science Research Associates (57 West Grand Avenue, Chicago 10, Illinois. \$0.40). It first discusses the characteristics of the intellectually gifted and of children with special talents. Specific suggestions are offered for parents of preschool children and for teachers of young children, with the hope that gifted and talented children may be identified early.

The section dealing with the personal characteristics of gifted children

is especially useful in dispelling the notion that giftedness is undesirable in many respects. Evidence is cited to support the conclusion that gifted children become leaders in academic and social situations when they leave school. But they also have problems unique to them. Misunderstandings at home, in school, and among their peer group are frequent and inhibit the development of their true potentialities. Specific suggestions are offered by Witty to help teachers and parents avoid these problems. A good bibliography completes this pamphlet, which should be available in every school.

To many teachers the fact that "a gifted child may be a retarded reader" will be a surprise. With this statement Ruth Strang, of Teachers College, Columbia University, opens her article, "Gifted Children Need Help in Reading, Too," which appears in the *Reading Teacher* for January, 1953. Strang suggests that some gifted children withdraw into reading because they have difficulty in making social adjustments.

Teachers often overlook the need for teaching reading to the child who reads as well as, or better than, the average child in the class. As a result of the lack of guidance, bright pupils often develop inefficient reading habits, which were learned through trial and error. To remedy this situation, Strang supports Witty's conclusion that the gifted should be identified early. Further, a wide range of suitable reading material is needed to stimulate growth and to foster special interests. Class activities can be

planned to encourage and give meaning to an enriched reading program. Finally, special counseling is needed to assist the gifted child in broadening his interests and elevating his tastes in reading. Strang's stimulating article should find immediate application in many classrooms where teachers are concerned with meeting the reading needs of gifted children.

"Teaching English to Superior Students" by Marion C. Sheridan, in the *NEA Journal* for December, 1952, offers further suggestions for enriching the reading program. One of special import provides that each assignment shall not be specifically circumscribed but shall have a "fringe" which offers leads to superior students. Co-ordination of reading, writing, speaking, and listening is exemplified in a unit on mass media of communication. Suggestions of this kind may stimulate further experimentation with enriched programs.

Educating Gifted Children at Hunter College Elementary School, written by Gertrude H. Hildreth, with the collaboration of Florence N. Brumbaugh and Frank T. Wilson, has been published by Harper and Brothers. It is a helpful guide to schools because its reports of practices are more detailed than in those cited in preceding paragraphs. Attention is given to the organization of the school and the curriculum, to teaching methods and instructional resources, and to academic skills. Of special interest are the sections dealing with guidance of gifted children. The outcomes in achievement and attitudes that this program

has brought about support the conclusion that it is meeting the needs of these pupils. The school staff believes that the enriched teaching described in this book can be beneficially adopted by other schools.

PROBLEMS OF TEACHING READING HERE AND THERE

THE ROLE OF READING in the world and the special problems implied form the basis of "Current Issues in the Teaching of Reading" discussed by Lou LaBrant in the *Reading Teacher* for March, 1953. The author, of the School of Education, New York University, estimates that, among two billion persons in the world who are of suitable age to read, only one in three can read and write. Furthermore, she places reading as one of many modes of mass communication, pointing out that in countries where illiteracy is high, recordings, films, and other means of communication may best replace reading at present.

The problems presented by the existence of 2,796 languages, some of which contain little basic literature, is serious in relation to materials for reading. If the world is to become literate, much reading material must be available in each of these languages, or learners must master a second language as they learn to read. LaBrant suggests that the latter solution has not been successful.

In terms of literacy, the author concludes that the United States ranks sixth or seventh. This estimate is based largely upon reading of the factual type, which she believes to be

supplied increasingly by other communication media, such as radio and television. As a result of our changing culture, it is essential to learn "when to read and when to look and listen." In all probability, this is the crucial issue in modern education and among the adult population of the United States.

However, LaBrant expresses the opinion that there is a place for reading of certain types, such as "careful, critical reading of important documents," reading for enjoyment, and reading for continuity. Of these, critical reading is probably most important, and most frequently omitted in our country. Without critical reading, she believes one is only "half-literate"; hence it is to this problem that increased educational attention should be directed.

LaBrant's article, briefly summarized in the preceding paragraphs, considers a number of areas of current concern to educators. Additional information on specific aspects of these problems are presented in the next sections of this note.

Illiterates in Pan America Illiteracy is still prevalent in many of the countries of the Americas, and UNESCO is

taking an active interest in promoting education in these countries. One of the major problems is to provide material which is meaningful and readable. Seth Spaulding in "Trial Run," appearing in *Américas* (published by the Pan American Union, Washington

6, D.C.), for December, 1952, describes the procedures used by the joint project of UNESCO and the Organization of American States. Booklets have been produced providing technical information on health, agriculture, economics, and social welfare which is written in simple readable language. These booklets were designed to provide materials to improve reading skills until the people could read books, newspapers, and magazines.

The people responded enthusiastically to the booklets. As a result of the study, the investigators concluded that, because of the poor lighting in these remote homes, illustrations should not be on colored backgrounds; that drawing should be realistic; that more humor is needed in the text; and that certain words which were misinterpreted should be changed. It is encouraging to note that those persons beginning to read for information requested additional books of this type. Such a response indicates that the simple booklets are meeting a real need. The author expresses the hope that such materials will eliminate "the danger that the new literate will regress to illiteracy or that he will become the victim of organized propaganda."

In remote areas where as many as half the inhabitants are illiterate and where reading matter is still rare, posters are used to improve the living standards of the people. Such measures as boiling the water and vaccinating cattle are of utmost importance.

Daniel Behrman describes the problems of securing posters in "Printing Is Reinvented at Pátzcuaro" in *UNESCO Features* of January 9, 1953. The posters could easily be designed because many artists were located, but without facilities for reproducing them inexpensively, the project was defeated. The Pátzcuaro Fundamental Education Center finally discovered a process, by pouring paraffin wax and beeswax over glass, such that the engraver could put his drawing directly on it. The actual printing plate was then made by pouring a mixture of glue and glycerine over the mold. A poster can be printed from the resulting rubbery plate by merely inking the surface, laying down a sheet of paper, and smoothing it by hand. This process enabled the center to produce posters for less than two cents each.

Spanish-speaking children in U.S.A.

Most schools in the Southwest of the United States and many schools elsewhere are concerned with educating children

who speak Spanish and who are forced to learn a second language. In competition with English-speaking children in the classroom, such children are placed at a great disadvantage. Scattered suggestions have been made, but a complete manual has recently been provided in *Teachers Guide to the Education of Spanish-speaking Children* prepared by the staff in Elementary Education of the California State Department of Education (Bulletin of

the State Department, Vol. XXI, No. 14, October, 1952).

The pamphlet first gives a background of the social problems of the Mexican families and the discrimination which has existed. Therefore, one of the major responsibilities of the school is acculturation. This problem must be approached with skill and tact because the mores and customs of the pupils' parents often differ from those of the teachers.

An educational program for these pupils is conceived of as requiring emphasis on language facility, on health and physical welfare, on firsthand experiences, and on democratic living in school. It is of utmost importance to develop harmonious relations with parents. Finally, guidance is essential to prepare these children to face prejudice and discrimination and, at the same time, to develop among them potential leadership to serve their own people in many professional areas.

The trends in reading

Reading is probably the subject of more reports of research, opinion, and

practice than any other specific school problem. Therefore it is well to take stock occasionally and determine the direction of research and practice. Irving H. Anderson has attempted this task in "Current Trends in the Teaching of Reading," presented in the *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin* for January, 1953. ✓ He lists the following eight trends which, in his opinion, are supported by research and expert opinion:

1. It is now recognized that a beginning reading program is needed in all the early elementary grades.

2. The methods most widely accepted for initial teaching feature large, meaningful wholes.

3. Present practice recognizes the close relation between reading and the other language functions.

4. Recent developments represent a shift of emphasis from oral to silent reading, with proper attention to each.

5. The latest methods place less reliance on a single basal reader series than on a variety of reading materials.

6. Modern methods stress reading to learn as much as learning to read.

7. The belief is widely held that every teacher should be a teacher of reading.

8. Interest in remedial reading has declined to the advantage of the concept of developmental reading.

Anderson briefly describes and develops each of these eight points. While some of these suggested trends would be debated by authorities in the field, others are generally accepted, in theory if not in practice.

The meaning in reading The article by LaBrant, reported earlier, made a plea for teaching critical reading. A conference on reading held in March, 1952, at the University of Delaware had as its theme *Reading for Meaning*. The proceedings, compiled by Russell G. Stauffer and published by the School of Education, University of Delaware, Newark, Delaware (\$1.50 a copy), is composed of fourteen

papers dealing with such general topics as "Meaning and Its Development," "Improving Comprehension," and "Critical Reading."

In the last section. J. Conrad Seegers, of Temple University, presents a readable article entitled "The Nature and Purpose of Critical Reading." His definition follows: "If reading is to serve a purpose, the reader must react to what he reads, and that reaction is part and parcel of what we call critical reading." To react critically, Seegers points out, it is essential to determine the purpose of the author, his qualifications for writing on a given subject, and the extent to which he presents evidence to support his statements.

Critical reading is essential if the public is to understand present-day advertising and propaganda. Otherwise, readers will dissipate their budgets without wise and careful selection. Furthermore, the inference and innuendo given by various writers on the political scene must be recognized and considered before judgments are made. Propaganda may be of the most vicious type and could undermine a democracy wherein the members fail to recognize the purpose behind the printed words. If adults are to read critically, they must be taught to do so in school because this skill develops just as any other aspect of reading.

Unfortunately space does not permit reference to many of the other excellent articles in this monograph, some of which are especially useful in

developing the ends set up in Seeger's paper.

Interpreting the program in reading Support of a school program is based upon the understanding and co-operation obtained from the community. Perhaps the most interested citizens, though often the most unenlightened critics of the reading program, are the parents of the school children. Many parents criticize the "newfangled" methods of teaching reading and point out the advantages of the methods used in their day. Much of this criticism can be alleviated if the current reading program is interpreted to parents.

In one school this interpretation has been done by giving demonstrations of the teaching of reading at meetings of the parent-teachers' association. In another, parents' study groups have worked with the reading consultant, making suggestions to improve reading instruction. But in many schools teachers and administrators find it difficult to explain their programs in nontechnical terms. They have voiced a need for help in this area and are being rewarded by a number of pamphlets designed for this purpose.

The Federal Security Agency, Office of Education Bulletin 1952, Number 7 (\$0.15), entitled *How Children Learn To Read*, was written by Helen K. Mackintosh. The stated purpose is "to explain to parents, especially, why and how methods of teaching beginning reading have changed." It also offers suggestions of ways in

which the parent may determine how well his child is reading. It includes an explanation of the contribution of the kindergarten to the reading program, as well as suggestions to parents who do not have access to a kindergarten. It describes the steps taken in the first grade, with special explanations of the reasons why teachers strive to make learning a pleasurable experience. Such guidance should assist parents in understanding that, even though their children report that school is play, learning may be progressing more rapidly than under the rigid work program of earlier years.

One of the useful Better Living Booklets is *Helping Children Read Better* by Paul Witty (Science Research Associates, Chicago 10, Illinois. \$0.40). The topics included are similar to those of the two previously mentioned booklets, except that they go beyond the primary grades and explain the growth in reading through the intermediate grades and high school. In each instance, there are suggestions for checking up on the child's progress.

The section for high school reflects the belief that every teacher teaches reading. It is followed by specific suggestions concerning what teachers can do. Four goals include reading for study, for personal understanding, for better citizenship, and for leisure.

Another feature of this booklet is an interesting presentation of the problems involved when pupils encounter reading difficulty. Causes and remedies are briefly explained, and the con-

tributions to be made by remedial-reading classes and reading clinics are set forth clearly. An important section considers guiding reading interests and includes comments on comics, radio, television, and movies. A bibliography about books and suggestions for further reading are added.

A recent booklet is devoted to explaining the problems of the poor reader. *If Your Child Has Reading Difficulties*, by Ursula Cooke MacDougall is published by the Dalton School (New York 28, New York. \$0.75). By using brief case studies, the author illustrates the effects of physical handicaps, such as vision and hearing. She also considers problems which have not been adequately met by the school. "Some typical reactions" explore with parents the emotional maladjustments which contribute to, and result from, reading failure.

The author points out the necessity for co-operation between parents and school in helping the retarded reader. One section guides the parents in coping with the problems of the child in the primary grades by suggesting constructive attitudes toward his school program. As difficulties develop in the middle grades, parents are urged to give the pupil assurance of their acceptance of him as a person and to assist him in avoiding feelings of inferiority. By following the suggestions of the school and by providing easy books connected with his special interest, the parents will encourage the child in his efforts. The problems of high-school and college students who

need reading help are also carefully explored.

The functions of a reading clinic and of reading specialists are clarified in this book. Diagnostic procedures and remedial therapy are illustrated by a case study. However, MacDougall makes it clear that the case considered is different from others so that the explanation will not serve as a guide for parents to follow with their own children. The booklet closes with a bibliography of titles dealing with reading difficulty. This booklet should be available to all schools and perhaps for loan to parents. It should serve as a springboard to mutual co-operation between home and school in promoting better reading and improved mental health among poor readers.

The booklets mentioned in the preceding paragraphs represent one step forward in interpreting the teaching of reading and in explaining special reading difficulties encountered. Some schools have given a great deal of thought to this problem and have even explored means of accomplishing their goal. The *Santa Barbara City Schools* for February, 1953, is entitled "Reading." The three-page illustrated brochure lists purposes of reading, steps in learning to read, and the process of learning to read in elementary and high school.

With all these published materials as examples and helps, each school must examine its own community and determine the best means for interpreting the reading program to the public. Without community support,

and especially without parent understanding, even the best reading curriculum may be defeated.

Guides for selection of books Experience supports the conclusion that the most successful teacher of reading is one who en-

joys the richest rewards from personal reading. In addition, many teachers have not analyzed their particular purposes for reading and ways of adapting their own reading to these purposes. *The Wonderful World of Books*, edited by Alfred Stefferud, opens up the vast realms of reading rewards. It was published simultaneously as a 35-cent paperbound Mentor Book by the New American Library of World Literature, Inc. (New York 22, New York) and in a clothbound edition at \$2.00 by Houghton Mifflin Company (Boston 7, Massachusetts). The publication, a nonprofit enterprise, resulted from a Conference on Rural Reading held in Washington, D.C., in 1951 sponsored by the United States Department of Agriculture's Extension Service.

This book includes seventy-two articles written by as many prominent persons, and organized to give meaning to the whole book. The pleasures of reading books, short stories, and poetry are clearly presented. The place of oral and of silent reading are illustrated. There are suggestions for improving your own reading and even for finding time to read. The value of books for citizenship, culture, and personal growth is related. Guides for

choosing books for everyone, even the blind, add to the worth of this volume. Libraries of different types are discussed so that each reader may know how and where to locate what he wishes to read. Even the writing, making, and publishing of books are discussed.

The *Wonderful World of Books* is a "must" for teachers, librarians, and others. It is so inexpensive that each of us can own it, and it is worth reading again and again. As a reference source it may be used frequently.

Teachers of the upper grades and high school will be interested in *Fare for the Reluctant Reader* by Anita Dunn, Mabel E. Jackman, Bernice C. Bush, and J. Roy Newton. It was compiled for the Capital Area School Development Association and is available for \$1.00 from the New York State College for Teachers at Albany. It is an "annotated bibliography designed to help teachers and librarians select books" which pupils can and will read.

The three basic principles explained in the "Foreword to Teachers" are worthy of note. First, "take the child where he is in reading" implies finding books appropriate to the reading achievement of each pupil regardless of his grade designation. Second, "provide large amounts of easy reading materials" emphasizes the importance of reading to improve skill and taste. Third, recognize that readers are individual in their interests and try to find the right books to keep pace with their changing interests.

The lists are arranged by grades and classified under such headings as "Animal Tales," "Popular Personalities," "Choosing a Career," "Spare-Time Fun," and others. Emphasis is properly placed on considering this list a beginning from which each teacher will develop his own bibliography.

SIXTEENTH ANNUAL READING CONFERENCE

THE annual conference on reading will be held at the University of Chicago on June 29 through July 2, 1953. The theme of the conference is "Corrective Reading in Classroom and Clinic." Attention will be focused on the responsibility of the classroom teacher and of the reading clinic in meeting the needs of pupils who do not read in harmony with their potentialities and on ways of meeting this challenge. The topic is of current interest to many teachers and administrators who are deeply concerned about teaching the poor reader effectively.

The opening session will be of special interest, for William S. Gray, of the University of Chicago, will report on his current study of methods of teaching reading in many of the UNESCO countries. Problems of corrective reading in American schools will then be discussed, with emphasis on the challenge of the conference theme. Each of the following sessions will be concerned with specific aspects of the theme. The general sessions will serve to identify basic issues and principles in diagnosing and correcting reading difficulties.

The general sessions will be followed by sectional meetings as follows: kindergarten to Grade III, Grades IV-VIII, high school, college, and reading clinic. The last section is planned for remedial-reading teachers and reading clinicians. The sectional meetings are designed to discuss the procedures, methods, and materials which are being used by the speakers. A portion of each meeting is set aside for teachers to ask questions and to share experiences, in an effort to resolve the problems of the pupil whose reading is unsatisfactory.

The Tuesday evening program is organized in co-operation with the National Association for Remedial Teaching. Selected case studies of unique reading problems will be presented by representatives from several reading clinics. The case studies will illustrate different kinds of reading problems, the difficulties involved in finding the best instructional methods, and the results obtained.

Administrators and supervisors will be especially interested in the meeting on Wednesday evening, which will be devoted to planning, organizing, and administering a corrective-reading program. Discussion groups are planned for elementary-school, high-school, and college levels, with administrators and reading teachers as discussants. This meeting will provide an opportunity to discuss ways of initiating and implementing corrective reading in the school. The conference program follows.

Monday, June 29, 9:30 A.M.

General Session

Teaching of Reading: The Current UNESCO Study, WILLIAM S. GRAY, University of Chicago

Problems of Corrective Reading in American Schools, HELEN M. ROBINSON, University of Chicago

Monday, June 29, 1:45 P.M.

General Session

Identifying Readers Who Need Corrective Instruction, MARY C. AUSTIN, Western Reserve University

Sectional Meetings: Discovering Retarded Readers

In Kindergarten-Grade III, MIRIAM HOWELL, University of Wisconsin

In Grades IV-VIII, DEVONA PRICE, Director of Instruction, Public Schools, Oak Park, Illinois

In High School, ELLEN BASS, York Community High School, Elmhurst, Illinois

In College, JAMES M. MCCALLISTER, Dean, Chicago City Junior College, Herzl Branch

In Clinics, MURIEL POTTER, Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan

Tuesday, June 30, 9:30 A.M.

General Session

Factors Which Produce Defective Reading, GEORGE SPACHE, University of Florida

Sectional Meetings: Eliminating Obstacles to Effective Reading

In Kindergarten-Grade III, LILLIAN P. STEVENSON, Reading Consultant, Evergreen Park, Illinois

In Grades IV-VIII, DOROTHY LAMPARD, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

In High School, HAROLD J. PERRY, Reading Instructor, Highland Park High School, Highland Park, Illinois

In College, MARVIN GLOCK, Cornell University

In Clinics, VICTOR LOHMAN, State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minnesota

Tuesday, June 30, 1:45 P.M.

General Session

Diagnosis of Reading Difficulties, ALBERT J. HARRIS, Queens College, Flushing, New York

Sectional Meetings: Methods for Diagnosing Specific Reading Problems

In Kindergarten-Grade III, JOSEPHINE PIEKARZ, University of Chicago

In Grades IV-VIII, FLORENCE NELSON, Reading Consultant, Public Schools, Hinsdale, Illinois

In High School, LILLIAN FLETCHER, Psychologist, Bureau of Child Study, Chicago Public Schools

In College, DOROTHY KENDALL BRACKEN, Southern Methodist University

In Clinics, CHARLES B. HUELSMAN, JR., Director Catholic Youth Organization Reading Service, Chicago

Wednesday, July 1, 9:30 A.M.

General Session

Basic Problems in Correcting Reading Difficulties, RUSSELL G. STAUFFER, University of Delaware

Sectional Meetings: Developing Word Recognition and Meaning Vocabulary

In Kindergarten-Grade III, NINA JACOB, Laboratory School, University of Chicago

In Grades IV-VIII, GRACE BOYD, Academic Counselor, Public Schools, Cicero, Illinois

In High School, MILDRED LETTON, Laboratory School, University of Chicago

In College, JAMES REED, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan

In Clinics, MARY C. SERRA, Illinois State Normal University

Wednesday, July 1, 1:45 P.M.

Sectional Meetings: Improving Comprehension and Developing Appropriate Reading Rates

In Kindergarten-Grade III, KATHRYN O'MALLIE, Riverside School, Decatur, Illinois

In Grade IV-VIII, IDA B. DE PENCIER, Laboratory School, University of Chicago

In High School, KERMIT DEHL, Oak Park and River Forest High School, Oak Park, Illinois

In College, LEONE M. BURFIELD, University of Chicago

In Clinics, LUCILLE BERKEL, Reading Clinic, St. Louis Public Schools

Thursday, July 2, 9:30 A.M.

General Session

Criteria for Selecting Materials and Instruments for Corrective Reading, A. STERL ARTLEY, University of Missouri

Sectional Meetings: Using Materials and Instruments in a Corrective Reading Program

In Kindergarten-Grade III, ANNE E. PRICE, Language Arts Consultant, St. Louis Public Schools

In Grade IV-VIII, LOUISE SIVYER, Reading Teacher, Chicago Public Schools

In High School, JEAN MCCLELLAND, Lyons Township High School, La Grange, Illinois

In College, MARTHA M. GESLING, Bowling Green State University

In Clinics, MILDRED C. HUGHES, Research Assistant, Reading Clinic, University of Chicago

Thursday, July 2, 1:30 P.M.

General Session

Recent Advances in Providing Books and Materials for Retarded Readers, MARION A. ANDERSON, Ginn and Company, Boston, Massachusetts

Characteristics of Books for Voluntary Reading in a Corrective Program, FRANCES HENNE, University of Chicago

Sectional Meetings: Selecting Books for Reluctant Readers

In Kindergarten-Grade III, SARA FENWICK, Laboratory School, University of Chicago

In Grades IV-VIII, MARY K. EAKIN, Center for Children's Books, University of Chicago

In High School, BLANCHE JANECEK, Laboratory School, University of Chicago

In College, PATRICIA KNAPP, Librarian, George Williams College, Chicago

In Clinics, SIDNEY HOLMES, Special Reading Teacher, Public Schools, Greensboro, North Carolina

General Session

New Frontiers in Corrective Reading, WILLIAM KOTTMEYER, Assistant Superintendent, St. Louis Public Schools

The customary practices of previous conferences will be followed in offering supplementary activities. Included are a reception for those who attend the conference; guided tours of the campus; exhibits of outstanding trade books for youth published since the 1952 conference; films presented by the Audio-Visual center; a visit to the Reading Clinic; and the annual textbook exhibit by publishers.

All classroom teachers, remedial teachers, school administrators, and others interested in the problem of corrective reading are cordially invited to attend the conference. The registration fee for the entire conference is \$7.00; for one day, \$2.00; for a half-day or single session, \$1.00. Advance registration may be completed by mail. Facilities for registration will be available at the conference on Monday morning and prior to each subsequent half-day or evening session.

Accommodations will be available for several hundred persons in Univer-

sity residence halls. Requests for the program, as well as forms for registration and application for rooms, should be directed to Mrs. Helen M. Robinson, Department of Education, University of Chicago.

CHICAGO WORKSHOP ON COMMUNITY HUMAN RELATIONS

THE second annual Chicago Workshop on Community Human Relations will be offered by the Department of Education of the University of Chicago and the Chicago Commission on Human Relations on July 27 through August 14, 1953, at the University of Chicago. Although the workshop is designed primarily for citizen leaders in the Chicago community, its purposes and unique design may be of interest to our readers.

The workshop is offered as a result of experiences which show that the checking of deterioration in large cities requires the participation of substantial numbers of citizens. The problems to which the workshop addresses itself are: What kind of participation is required? How can it be obtained? What other services must be co-ordinated with it?

To answer these questions requires analysis of the particular forces operating in the deteriorating area, skills in group participation and involvement techniques, and strategic planning of programs for action and adult education. It further requires the development of institutional and professional resources, the creation of a social climate that will support the efforts to

halt deterioration, and the setting-up of adequate consultative and training programs.

The workshop experiences include intensive study of the operation of a face-to-face group in which one is a member, study of basic sociological concepts and their application to the members' own problems, and practice with the skills involved in putting on large mass meetings, organizing block groups for action, developing community organizations, and the like. The members of the workshop also become acquainted with the work of many action and welfare groups in the Chicago area, and they form co-operative relationships with one another for mutual encouragement and support throughout the year. Constantly during the workshop effort is made to derive, from group dynamics, sociology, education, and other sciences, useful principles for community practitioners. Because of the pioneering nature of the training design, the workshop is studied with the help of the National Training Laboratory in Group Development.

The planning committee for the workshop consists of Herbert Thelen, Human Dynamics Laboratory of the Department of Education, University of Chicago; William C. Bradbury, of the University Committee on Education, Training, and Research in Race Relations, Department of Sociology; and Eleanor Dungan, director of education of the Chicago Commission on Human Relations.

HELEN M. ROBINSON

WHO'S WHO FOR MAY

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by HELEN M. ROBINSON, associate professor of education and director of the Reading Clinic at the University of Chicago. JACOB S. ORLEANS, director of research and evaluation, and EDWIN WANDT, both of the Office of Research and Evaluation, Division of Teacher Education, College of the City of New York, describe the results of a study made to determine the knowledge of basic mathematical concepts and processes that is possessed by teachers of arithmetic. MARY C. SERRA, associate professor of education and director of the Reading Laboratory at Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois, reviews the pertinent research on the concept load in content-subject textbooks, pointing out that too many new, difficult, and unusual concepts and indefinite words are introduced without being properly developed and explained. SIGMUND FOGLER, principal of Public School 233, Brooklyn, New York, after citing the findings of a survey of television ownership among families of his school and the

viewing habits of the pupils, describes the projected goals and the results of an attempt by the school to make televiewing a more fruitful, constructive occupation. WILLIAM D. SHELDON, director of the Reading Laboratory of Syracuse University, and WARREN C. CUTTS, instructor in reading at Appalachian State Teachers College, Boone, North Carolina, discuss the relations between children's reading status and certain developmental aspects and other characteristics of the children as reported by parents on a questionnaire. ALINA M. LINDEGREN, specialist in European Education, Division of International Education, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, presents a list of selected references on foreign education.

Reviewers of books H. T. JAMES, director of aids, State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin. GEORGE SPACHE, head, Reading Laboratory and Clinic, University of Florida. VIRGIL HENRY, superintendent of schools, Orland Park, Illinois.

THE UNDERSTANDING OF ARITHMETIC POSSESSED BY TEACHERS

JACOB S. ORLEANS AND EDWIN WANDT
Division of Teacher Education, College of the City of New York



ARITHMETIC may be viewed as a series of short cuts which have been developed to facilitate computation. Unfortunately, many persons know arithmetic *only* as a series of short cuts without knowing the basic concepts and the processes for which they are the short cuts.

If arithmetic is to be taught so that children acquire real understanding of arithmetic processes and concepts, it would seem obvious that the teachers of arithmetic must possess the understandings that they are attempting to transmit to their students. In a recent study¹ a systematic effort was made to ascertain the extent to which teachers and prospective teachers of arithmetic understand the processes and concepts that are represented by the short cuts which they teach. The procedures and findings of that study are presented here in abbreviated form.

PROCEDURE

Two tests were developed to cover items such as the understanding of

¹ Jacob S. Orleans, *The Understanding of Arithmetic Processes and Concepts Possessed by Teachers of Arithmetic*. Publication No. 12. New York: Office of Research and Evaluation, Division of Teacher Education, College of the City of New York, 1952.

steps in long division and long multiplication, the meaning of dividing by a fraction, the concept of reducing and raising fractions to lower and higher terms, the meaning of a remainder, the relation between subtraction and division, the meaning of per cent, and several other items. Although the choice of items was not the result of a systematic selection, they represent a sampling of basic arithmetic processes and concepts.

The first test consisted of twenty-one questions of the free-answer type, such as:

Look at the example at the right.	234
Why is the second partial product (1170) moved over one place to the left?	$\begin{array}{r} \times 56 \\ \hline 1404 \\ 1170 \\ \hline 13,104 \end{array}$

This test was administered in the spring of 1950 to 722 subjects, distributed as follows: 193 undergraduates in the four municipal colleges of New York City who were completing a course in methods of teaching in the elementary school, including the teaching of arithmetic; 340 undergraduates of the same four colleges doing student teaching in the elementary

school; 43 students in graduate courses in education in two of the municipal colleges; 80 classroom teachers (26 in primary grades, 45 in Grades IV-VI, and 9 teachers of junior high school mathematics); and 66 other persons.

As the recorded answers from these various groups were examined with a view to classifying them, it became apparent that many of the subjects who participated in the study had serious difficulty in verbalizing their answers. It would have been helpful to be able to label answers to any question as "right" or "wrong." A "right" answer would show an understanding of the concept or process involved in the question, and a "wrong" answer would show a lack of understanding of the concept or process. It was soon discovered that many answers could not be so labeled.

An attempt to classify the answers according to degree of understanding that could be inferred from them also had to be abandoned. Instead, they were grouped by the nature of the wording of the answer itself. Obviously, that plan would have meant a long listing of answers, with most of them occurring once or only a few times. An attempt was then made to group answers which seemed to mean the same thing or which showed the same kind of understanding or lack of understanding. In many instances that meant the use of judgment on the part of the person doing the classifying.

Originally we planned to use only a free-answer test, on the assumption

that the multiple-choice type of question would frequently give away the answer. The tabulation of responses on the free-answer test indicated clearly (1) that it would be difficult to interpret the findings and (2) that the multiple-choice form of question would not be likely to give away the answer in enough instances to vitiate the value of the findings.

A multiple-choice test was therefore prepared, which consisted of eighteen questions, each presenting a choice of four answers. In general, the three wrong choices for each question were among the most frequently occurring wrong responses obtained from the free-answer test. (The reference to "right" and to "wrong" responses may be questioned. "Right" responses refer to answers which show a clear understanding of the concept or process referred to in the question, and "wrong" responses refer to answers which show less than an adequate understanding or perhaps no understanding at all.)

Several of the questions which had been employed in the earlier test were not repeated in the multiple-choice form since the analysis of the answers indicated that the questions were of dubious value.

The directions for the multiple-choice test were made much more detailed and complete than had been the case for the open-answer version. An illustration was included in an attempt to get across to the examinees what they were to look for in the correct choice among the four possible an-

swers to each question. The directions were as follows:

The purpose of this test is to give you an opportunity to show how much you *understand* about arithmetic processes, concepts, and relationships. After each question you will find four answers which have been furnished by teachers. *One* of these answers shows an understanding of the process, concept, or relationship in question. The others do not show such an understanding (even though they may be correct statements of procedure or fact). Select the *one* answer to each question which, in your opinion, shows that the teachers who wrote it understand the process, concept, or relationship in question.

The test was administered to 322 teachers grouped as follows: Group A, 53 teachers of the primary grades; Group B, 76 teachers of Grades IV-VI (including 19 who were former teachers of those grades); Group C, 67 teachers of junior and senior high school mathematics; Group D, 126 "other" teachers (teachers of kindergarten, teachers of junior or senior high school subjects other than mathematics, guidance counselors, and other school workers). Most of the teachers were summer-session students during the summer of 1951 at the University of Colorado, the University of Illinois, and the University of Houston.

In the administering of both forms of the test, the subjects were asked not to identify themselves by writing their names on the test papers. It was hoped that having the questions answered anonymously would make the subjects feel more at ease in taking the test and in attempting to answer the questions.

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Responses to the multiple-choice questions were tabulated for each of the four groups of teachers who completed the multiple-choice test. In cases in which the same question had been asked in the open-answer test, the responses to these questions were available to amplify the interpretations of the data. An example of the method employed is given below.

QUESTION 10, MULTIPLE-CHOICE TEST

Look at the example at the right.	157
Why is the third partial product moved over two places and written under the 2 of the multiplier?	246
— (1) If you put it directly under the other partial products, the answer would be wrong.	942
— (2) You must move the third partial product two places to the left because there are three numbers in the multiplier.	628
— (3) The number 2 is in the hundreds' column, so the third partial product must come under the hundreds' column.	314
* — (4) You are really multiplying by 200.	38,622

Table 1 shows that almost half of the teachers failed to select the choice that explains why the third partial product is moved two places to the left in multiplying. The first choice merely states that you will not get the right answer if you do not follow the approved multiplication procedure. The second and third choices describe the process. Only the fourth choice

tells *why*. All teachers of arithmetic and mathematics might well be expected to know that in the example given you are really multiplying by 200 (that is, by 2 hundreds) and the third partial product is therefore real-

The third choice was selected by a large per cent of the group (more than a third of all the teachers, including almost two-fifths of the teachers of Grades IV-VI). This choice repeats the routine: you start writing the par-

TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES OF 322 TEACHERS TO SELECTED QUESTIONS IN ENTIRE TEST OF UNDERSTANDING OF ARITHMETIC PROCESSES

ANSWER CHOSEN	PRIMARY GRADE TEACHERS (53)		TEACHERS OF GRADES IV-VI (76)		TEACHERS OF HIGH-SCHOOL MATHEMATICS (67)		OTHER TEACHERS (126)		TOTAL (322)	
	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent
Question 10:										
1.....	1	2	1	1			1	1	3	1
2.....	7	13	4	5	4	6	15	12	30	9
3.....	21	40	29	38	22	33	42	33	114	36
*4.....	24	45	41	54	41	61	62	49	168	52
Omitted.....			1	1			6	5	7	2
Question 4:										
1.....	24	45	31	41	29	43	61	48	145	45
2.....			4	5	7	10	6	5	17	5
*3.....	16	30	22	29	24	36	29	23	91	28
4.....	13	25	18	24	7	10	25	20	63	20
Omitted.....			1	1			5	4	6	2
Question 15:										
1.....	12	22	8	10	7	10	29	23	56	17
2.....	28	53	43	57	32	48	66	52	169	53
*3.....	11	21	22	29	26	39	26	21	85	27
4.....			1	1			3	2	4	1
Omitted.....	2	4	2	3	2	3	2	2	8	2
Mean number correct on 18 items...	8.3		9.5		10.4		8.2			

* Answer which shows the most complete understanding of the concept or process in question.

ly 31,400 (that is, 314 hundreds). Even among the teachers of junior and senior high school mathematics, the group which had the largest per cent of answers that showed an understanding of the concept, almost two-fifths of the teachers did not make the right choice.

tial product under the digit in the multiplier by which you are multiplying. This selection of an answer which states the routine but does not explain the process occurs in a number of the questions on the test.

The interpretation of the data given above is not complete without refer-

ence to the sample question of the multiple-choice test. That question also presented a multiplication task (234×56) completely worked out, with the question, "Why is the second partial product (1170) moved over one place to the left?" Since this was a sample item, a discussion of the four answers was given with an explanation of why three of them were not adequate and why the fourth choice was correct. Question 10 of the test, for which the data are presented in Table 1, is essentially the same as the sample. In other words, the data for that question should be interpreted in light of the fact that the same type of item had appeared as the sample with a discussion and explanation.

For insight into the fuzziness of the "thinking" of many of the respondents, one may refer to the answers given to this sample item when it was used on the free-answer test, in which it was not used as a sample item. Little more than one-third of the total group gave replies that might be regarded as showing clear understanding, such as:

You are multiplying by 10's

When you multiply by 5 tens (or by 50), the product must be written in the tens' place

The multiplicand is 50 tens, not units, and there is an understood 0 after 1170

The product is really 11,700, the other 0 is from multiplying by 50 of the 56.

Clear indication of a lack of understanding was shown by 11 per cent of the total group who either omitted the item or wrote "I don't know." Among the answers showing what seems to be

less than an adequate understanding of the process are the following:

Since 5 is in the tens' column, its product must start in the same column

The "multiplicand" 5 is in the second decimal place

It belongs in the tens' column because we are multiplying by 5

1170 is the product of 5×234 so it is under the 5 (it makes the adding simpler)

You are multiplying by 5, this shows we are doing this

Because the multiplier is moved over one place to the left

Our arithmetic is based on the digit 10

Our system is based on 10 and we move the second line one digit to the hundredths [sic].

Many of the replies seemed to be merely statements of the procedure without any explanation. Others were difficult to interpret at all. Taken together, at least 25 per cent of the subjects furnished answers which showed a lack of understanding of why the second partial product is moved over one place, and another 49 per cent either clearly did understand the procedure or furnished answers that might be acceptable, depending on further explanation. The remaining 26 per cent of the answers would hardly be acceptable explanations of the multiplication procedure in question.

It is interesting to note that one of every nine subjects (and one of every eight teachers of arithmetic) made such mistakes as referring to the tens' place as the hundreds' place, the "hundredths" place, the thousands' place, or the units' place; and to the units' place as the tens' place or the

"tenths" place. Such errors as these may well be taken as *prima facie* evidence that these persons lack understanding of our number system. It is disturbing to think that over 10 per cent of the teachers fall in this category. An understanding of the number system is essential to the understanding of the arithmetic processes, if not, indeed, for the mechanical performance and the mechanical teaching of them.

Data are also presented in Table 1, without comment or discussion, for two other questions used in the test.

QUESTION 4

Look at the division example at the right. You multiply two numbers to get the partial product <i>represented</i> by the number 92. Think of what the partial product really is which is represented by the number 92. What are the two numbers that are multiplied to produce that partial product?	147 23 $\overline{)3381}$ 23 — 108 92 — 161 161 —
--	--

— (1) $4 \times 20 + 4 \times 3$

— (2) 23×14

* — (3) 40×23

— (4) 4 tens times 3 units and 2 hundreds

QUESTION 15

When we change $\frac{6}{8}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ we say that we are reducing the fraction to "lower terms." When we change $\frac{2}{3}$ to $\frac{8}{12}$ we say that we are raising the fraction to "higher terms." Explain what these changes mean in terms of the *meaning of a fraction*.

— (1) It is often more convenient to work with a fraction that is reduced to lower terms or raised to higher terms. So we divide (or multiply) both terms by the same number.

— (2) It does not change the value of a fraction to divide (or multiply) both numerator and denominator by the same number.

* — (3) Changing the denominator means changing the size of the unit: if the unit is twice as large there will be half as many units; if the unit is a third as large there will be three times as many units.

— (4) Changing $\frac{6}{8}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ should be called "changing to higher terms" since fourths are larger than eighths.

Each of the problems in the multiple-choice test was analyzed in a manner similar to that in the preceding illustrations. The mean number of items correct for each of the teacher groups, given at the foot of Table 1, indicates that none of the groups had a mean "score" as high as 60 per cent right in the test. This finding is rather disquieting in view of the fundamental nature of the items covered. Mathematics teachers did slightly better on the test than did the other groups, but the differences were not large.

INFERENCES AND DISCUSSION

With respect to the test as a whole, teachers of mathematics and arithmetic demonstrated a slightly better understanding of arithmetic than did the other groups of teachers. There were, however, a number of items which the latter groups seemed to understand better. Being prepared as a teacher of arithmetic, or even having experience in teaching the subject, does not appear to guarantee a thorough understanding of arithmetic fundamentals.

Certain inferences may be drawn from the findings presented in the preceding pages. (1) People in general, teachers and educated laymen, have difficulty in verbalizing their explanations of arithmetic processes, concepts, and relationships. (2) There are apparently few processes, concepts, or relationships in arithmetic which are understood by a large per cent of teachers.

One possible explanation of the preceding findings is that they result from the practice of teaching a short cut for a process as though it were the process itself. The understanding of a short cut can hardly arise except from an understanding of the process for which it is the short cut. When the pupil learns *only* the short cut, he is obliged to learn it as rote. If later he becomes a teacher, he still generally knows it as rote. It should be borne in mind that we still lack evidence that pupils can perform the short cuts more efficiently than they can learn the longer processes—entirely apart from the question whether they understand what they are doing.

One might conclude that, because of the difficulty of the underlying processes and concepts of arithmetic, we should not expect teachers to understand many of them. Although this study does not provide evidence on this point, the authors are of the opin-

ion that the lack of understanding of arithmetic evidenced by the teachers tested is more a function of the way arithmetic has been learned than of the inherent difficulty of the subject itself. Personal comments made by teachers are not data in the true sense of the term, unless they are recorded, tabulated, and interpreted. It is, however, worthy of note that many of the teachers who took the multiple-choice test commented fully, both in class discussions and in personal conferences, on their lack of understanding of the basic processes and concepts and on their inability to use arithmetic meaningfully and with confidence. Comments of this nature were made by arithmetic teachers and by teachers of junior and senior high school mathematics as frequently as by teachers of other subjects or other grades.

If the understanding of arithmetic possessed by teachers is to be increased, teacher-training institutions must make this one of their goals. The teacher-education institutions may have only an indirect influence on the program of number work in the schools, but they can directly influence the prospective teacher's knowledge and understanding of arithmetic and his preparation for his responsibilities in getting children to learn about numbers.

THE CONCEPT BURDEN OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

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RESEARCH establishes the fact that the concept burden of instructional materials is too heavy. It points to a growing tendency to lighten the load in content-subject textbooks, particularly in series of books designed for basal reading instruction. It emphasizes the need to consider the concept burden as well as the vocabulary burden of instructional materials and suggests a growing concern with the distinction between mere verbalism and well-established concepts based on experiences. Some of the studies in this area have little or no individual statistical significance, and their specific findings are open to question. The agreement among them, however, cannot be ignored.

SOCIAL STUDIES

Bedwell (1) studied children's comprehension of concepts of quantity in third-grade reading materials in the social studies. Both definite and indefinite terms were found to be of differing degrees of difficulty. Children demonstrated that it was possible to have a factual knowledge of a term without having a functional concept of the same term. Even in the restricted field of concepts of quantity at the third-reader level, the load was too

heavy for the children, and verbalism resulted. Definite and indefinite terms for quantity were misinterpreted because children lacked concepts based on experience. This makes it clear that concept burden is relative, to be evaluated only in terms of the established concepts possessed by the intended readers.

Ritter (11) carefully studied the words and meanings (and, by inference, the concepts) used in two popular fourth-grade textbooks in geography. Her findings were glaring when contrasted with the usual vocabulary burden of basal reading series. In the basal reading books for Grade IV that had been published near the date of her study, the authors, who can be presumed to have given careful consideration to children's capacity to acquire new vocabulary effectively, introduced roughly 1,000 new words. Ritter found that 2,195 technical, difficult, or unusual terms were introduced in one fourth-grade geography. In basal reading instruction, nothing is more important than the building of reading vocabulary in the basis of well-established concepts. In geography textbooks, vocabulary control is relatively incidental. One author of a geography textbook doubles the bur-

den that the authors of readers feel children can carry.

The second geography textbook analyzed by Ritter was somewhat shorter in terms of the total number of running words. The number of new words in the second geography was 1,093. The authors of basal readers add all the new words that they believe children can acquire. Authors of textbooks in history, science, and geography seem to pay little attention to vocabulary load.

In one of the geography books that Ritter analyzed, one technical, difficult, or unusual word was added for every 34.5 running words. In the second book, one new term was added for every 49 running words. In either, the load would be just about right for instruction in reading, but it is certainly excessive in geography, where instruction in reading should be incidental. It is also doubtful that the "difficult" and "unusual" words in geography textbooks are symbols of concepts that children ordinarily have already established. With basal readers, the problem is intentionally kept at the level of associating verbal symbols and established concepts. Readers deliberately attempt to convey and develop concepts. Thus the significance of the contrast between these books and textbooks in social studies increases.

Springman (14), in a study of sixth-grade pupils' understanding of statements in social-studies textbooks, found that only about half of the children fully comprehended the statements. For statistical reasons, his find-

ings cannot be interpreted to mean that children do not understand half of what they read. He does, however, demonstrate that the concept load was much too heavy for the children he tested. Springman's findings imply that the number of concepts in textbooks would constitute an excessive burden for many children. In his study he used fifty sixth-grade pupils. The children were requested to read passages from two geography textbooks. They were then asked to relate in their own words what the selections meant to them. Out of a total of 594 responses, 52.18 per cent showed either partially correct or vague meanings. Not one child demonstrated correct comprehension of the selections read.

BASAL READING MATERIALS

Marcum (8) made a direct attack upon the concept burden of primary-grade basal reading materials. She analyzed the concepts expressed in fifteen series of preprimers, primers, and first- and second-grade readers and found the following numbers of concepts:

- 110 different concepts in 15 preprimers
- 406 different concepts in 15 primers
- 719 different concepts in 15 first-grade readers
- 1,487 different concepts in 15 second-grade readers

The range in the concept load at the different levels was as follows:

- 10- 55 different concepts per preprimer
- 48-101 different concepts per primer
- 73-182 different concepts per first-grade reader
- 188-389 different concepts per second-grade reader

At any one level, not more than 17 concepts were common to all series, and only one concept was common to all preprimers.

Marcum listed the concepts, classified by level and series, to aid teachers in determining the experiences that children need to prepare them for reading in a basal series. Vocabulary lists are commonly printed in the back of each book in basal readers. Marcum's work suggests that an analogous listing of concepts used in each book would be available.

It is the intention of lower-level basal readers to cause children to associate printed symbols with spoken symbols that are already associated with well-established concepts. The early stages of learning to read should not be complicated by the need for concept development. With a "concept vocabulary" or "concept list" at hand, the teacher could determine the appropriateness of a given book in terms of the concepts already possessed by children or could provide appropriate experiences to build the needed concepts before using the book.

Sims (13) concluded that the concepts which a child will need for handling materials adequately through reading can be determined by analysis. She recommended the compilation and use of "concept vocabularies" or "concept lists."

Ogle (9) found that the concept burden varied from one series of basal readers to another at the primary-grade level. He classified the concepts and found twice as many relating to house and home as in any

other classification, with concepts of metals occurring least often.

Investigating the language of relativity as related to readiness, Osburn, Huntington, and Meeks (10) found no systematic attempt to include concepts of comparison relationships in readers. Such of these concepts as were used seemed to have been included by accident. The authors of this study believe that children should receive systematic training in dealing with relationships and that textbook writers should provide the occasion for it in their primary-grade materials.

Hildreth (4) advocates a lighter vocabulary load in primary-grade reading materials. She notes that easy vocabulary seems to require less teaching expertness. The inexperienced teacher succeeds with easier books, whereas even the experienced teacher has a difficult time with a heavy vocabulary. Probably an easier concept load would also lighten the teaching burden.

As of 1938, Hockett (5) reported that the basic vocabulary of "recent" primers and first readers was not so extensive as that in older books. There was more repetition of words in "recent" readers than in earlier editions. There is no evidence that this trend has been reversed. Fewer words and more experience with them are the major promises of the authors of basal readers. The same approach could well be assigned to the treatment of concepts.

As late as 1939, Herbers (3), in dealing with third-grade basal readers, found that children revealed inade-

quate and incorrect concepts of words, phrases, and sentences. Some materials which were used by pupils with facility showed hazy and erroneous concepts. It is not clear from Herbers' report whether she was actually measuring concepts or language facility. Either way, she established the point that, at the time of her study, the problems connected with the vocabulary burden and probably with the concept burden of third-grade readers had not been solved.

Gunderson (2) found some hopeful signs in 1942. She concluded, in substance:

1. Basal readers for the first three grades make provision for the development of meaning vocabularies in verbs.

2. The large number of synonyms introduced at progressive levels enabled children to become aware of the common, as well as the more specific, meanings of words.

3. The vocabulary load increases from the preprimer to the third reader for growth in accuracy of comprehension and depth of interpretation.

4. More colorful and precise words are introduced in the second and third readers for finer interpretation, developing shades of feeling, and a sensitivity for meaning.

Gunderson's study dealt with words and their meanings rather than with concepts, but her study shows the serious attention given by authors of basal readers to the nature of learning in children.

The real harm in overloading instructional materials with concepts is that overloading produces verbalism (or no learning at all). Looby (6, 7), investigating the understandings that sixth-grade children derive from their

reading of literature, found that verbalism is rampant. Children's understanding of "the stern of his ship" placed the stern from one end of the boat to the other. "Breathing space" meant a space in the mouth. A statement that a man was "slain" meant that he had servants. Yet children read and used these words.

Simpson (12) found wide variance in the specific meanings that children attach to terms indicating differing degrees of frequency. For example, one-fourth of his subjects believed that "frequently" meant less than 40 per cent of the time; while another fourth of them thought it meant more than 80 per cent of the time. A similar treatment for the term "seldom" produced quartile scores at 6 per cent and 18 per cent of the time. The probable confusion in interpretation of instructional materials containing such indefinite terms is obvious. Resulting verbalisms are easily predicted.

In books overloaded with difficult terms, a large portion of these terms are not associated in any usable manner with established concepts. In some cases, children can ascribe no meanings to the terms. In other cases they ascribe wrong meanings, vague meanings, or partially correct meanings. In any case, where correct meaning is not ascribed, the best that can result from reading a term is verbalism.

SUMMARY

There is a scarcity of research dealing directly with the concept burden of instructional materials. From the

investigations that have been made, the following conclusions can be inferred.

1. The concept burden of social-studies materials is excessive.

2. Difficult or unusual concepts are not repeated sufficiently often in social-studies textbooks. That is, concepts are expressed in the books but are not developed for the children who read them.

3. The problem of concept development is complicated by the vocabulary burden through the too frequent use of indefinite terms.

4. Verbalism can be avoided only by associating words with concepts that have their roots in experience.

5. There is a tendency today to reduce the concept load of instructional materials, particularly of basal reading series.

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PROGRESS REPORT ON TV

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A ROUTINE CHECK on television-set ownership made two years ago showed that sets were owned by almost nine out of ten families in the writer's school community, numbering slightly more than one thousand families enrolling children in the school. The ratio in the country as a whole was only one out of thirteen families, and in the city as a whole, only one out of five or six. Realizing that the school had a problem to contend with, not only in terms of pupils' balanced use of leisure time, but also in the matter of putting this latest mass medium to some constructive educational use in the pattern in which it was (and still is) functioning, the writer and his colleagues decided to write a guide for the development of television appreciation. The story of this undertaking and its background was told in a previous article.¹

The planners and writers of the guide had three major objectives in mind: (1) to develop discrimination in the consumption of television offerings at the several maturational levels to be found in a kindergarten-eight-year

public elementary school; (2) to help put televising into its proper place among children's daily activities; (3) to make the television experience a two-way activity, the children communicating their reactions to stations and producers of programs.

PROGRAM PREFERENCES

The guide was introduced as an item in the school's activities in October, 1951. In June, 1952, the teachers were asked to report on their experiences with it.

As was to be expected, the youngest children (Grades I-II) preferred puppet shows, cowboy presentations, harmless mysteries, humorous and nostalgic family-life situations, and prize-presenting programs.

Children in the next maturational group (Grades III-IV) favored, in addition to programs of the types mentioned above, more imaginative programs, rocket and space-ship presentations, variety shows, mystery and detective stories, and plays which might be called dramatic presentations.

There was not much difference between the favorites of eight- and nine-year-olds and those of the preadoles-

¹ Sigmund Fogler, "Prometheus or Frankenstein?" *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XXIV (November, 1950), 154-66.

cents (Grades V-VI), except that the latter frequently reported among their preferences presentations dealing with science and feats of skill.

Adolescents (Grades VII-VIII) reported seeing almost everything offered on video, including the entire range of sporting events, quizzes, news, and film features.

As was to be expected, the children were found to spend from three to four hours a day before their screens during the winter and only about two hours in the summer. Some children became bored with the medium; others developed indifference to it. A number of children reported learning from television, particularly from those programs that require concurrent viewer participation, from science showings, and from those programs in which evil was punished and good rewarded. In general, boys preferred "Westerns" and "Sports"; girls, the "Romances." All children showed a wide range of interests, including comedies, quiz shows, and presentations of stories, plays, scientific demonstrations, and sporting events. Preadolescents and adolescents would have liked to see more animal stories and programs dealing with teen-age situations. The older children deplored what they called "corny Westerns" and "stereotyped mysteries."

GAINS INSPIRED BY TELEVISION GUIDE

At all levels teachers reported that, as a result of the periodic discussions

in class and other activities undertaken in this area of experience, taste and discrimination at the several levels are being developed. Several additional gains have been noted. For one, less time is spent, in general, in viewing television than before the guide was used, and children are doing other things—playing with companions; doing their schoolwork; reading; joining and attending clubs; improving themselves by attending the Police Athletic League or parochial school; and engaging in musical, dancing, or similar activities. Second, in writing to performers and producers, children are becoming aware that production is partly a responsibility of the consumer; in other words, that the audience can have a voice in determining the kinds of programs they will be offered. Third, children find that they can improve their own techniques in such play as basketball and baseball by watching professional performers on the screen. Finally, they have learned that televiewing can be scheduled so that all members of a family see programs which they like. (It is interesting to note that some families possess two sets so that adults need not interfere with children's televiewing activities!)

CLASSROOM APPROACH TO TELEVISION

Teachers approached classroom television work in a variety of ways. One teacher's program included, among other activities:

1. Census of programs watched by children
2. Periodic reporting on, and discussion of, selected programs
3. Teacher and pupil criticism of programs, supported by actual watching
4. Posting on classroom bulletin board of newspaper articles, pamphlets, booklets, and charts dealing with television
5. "Television Detective," a game used to supplement scheduled curriculum areas
6. Presentation of an assembly program similar to one presented on TV

Another teacher reported that, as a result of classroom television experiences, the children in the class altered their viewing habits to the extent of seeing a variety of presentations; viewed new programs as they were announced; decided not to be unduly influenced by advertising; and kept up with other activities, such as reading, music, and art.

CHILDREN'S REACTIONS TO TELEVISION

Since this report concerns children's growth as intelligent consumers of TV offerings, it might help the reader to have several typical reactions to this medium, all written by eighth-graders.

Since television has come into my house, it has brought many wonderful hours of entertainment. As I think back to the time when we didn't have a television set, I cannot remember how my family and I spent our evening hours. Now, I watch programs of an educational type, and some just for the entertainment.

I like to watch my favorite programs with my family. It is not only a pleasure to

sit with them, but we can also discuss the program as it goes along. Usually I sit on the sofa or I watch from the floor. Sometimes we have some ice cream, but most of the time I only have some cookies and milk throughout the evening.

When I come home from school I change to my playclothes and go out to play some ball. At about five I come in and watch some of my regular programs 'til six-thirty. These include a film, "The U.N. in Action," and the news. Then I do my homework and eat dinner. On Monday, Wednesday, and Thursday I go to the school community center 'til about a quarter to nine. Then I watch TV until bedtime. Bedtime in my home varies, but it is never later than eleven o'clock.

The idea of entertaining guests with TV or being entertained by TV is not my idea of a visit. I watch television about twelve hours a week. I do not think this is excessive, and not endangering my eyes. I would like to see more programs like "Crusade in the Pacific" and "It's News to Me." All in all, I think television is doing much in educating and entertaining the public.

"How did this get on television?" That was my question as I viewed a certain television show for the first time last week. The show was called —, and just to see what it was like my family decided to tune it in. It turned out to be our misfortune.

The idea of this boring show is for young professional talent to compete with older talent. Each one of both the younger and older groups does his act, and at the end of each act the applause is registered on a meter that determines the winner. Although the idea of the show isn't too bad, the talent put on wasn't good at all, and I personally did not think either of the groups was eligible to win. I know television really is grand, but I'm afraid it had better do a little housecleaning of shows like this if it wants to remain that way.

I know it would be a great moral boost to the kids to have television in the school. We would save a lot of money on movies that are purely for pleasure, since there are many films of this type on TV all day long. The girls would get to see a lot of homemaking and fashion shows, and both boys and girls would love to see the baseball games, which I think are as educational and as American as any documentary film. On Mondays there are instructional movie shorts at 10:15, besides a very good program that is specifically for schools, called the "Living Blackboard." Wednesday at 1:00 there's a program called the "Science Lesson" and, at the same time, a geographic film "Screening the World." I think we would all like to have a *talking* science lesson instead of watching silent films which were filmed in the year 1935. There are many more programs that

have educational value. Television in my estimation has a specific place in school life, and I think everyone would enjoy it, especially the teachers.

CONCLUSION

Even though the television program guide was introduced in the school on an experimental basis, both teachers and pupils feel that it is doing an important job of guidance in the field. The teachers believe that it has achieved the desirable objectives sought. Because of this, the introduction of television education in the elementary schools can be recommended as productive of good in the field of leisure-time activities.

RELATION OF PARENTS, HOME, AND CERTAIN DEVELOPMENTAL CHARACTERISTICS TO CHILDREN'S READING ABILITY. II

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IN AN earlier study of the relation of parents, home, and certain developmental characteristics to children's reading ability, Sheldon and Carrillo¹ found the following factors to be somewhat related to the reading ability of children: size of family, position in the family, number of books in the home, educational level of the parents, and like or dislike of school by the child. No relation, however, was shown between reading ability and these factors: number of children in the neighborhood who are of the same age as the child, number of times that the family has moved (unless the move occurred at the age when the child was learning to read), the number of fears of the child, and the general frequency of daydreaming as noted by parents. The present article is concerned with ten other characteristics and their relation to reading ability.

¹ William D. Sheldon and Lawrence Carrillo, "Relation of Parents, Home, and Certain Developmental Characteristics to Children's Reading Ability," *Elementary School Journal*, LII (January, 1952), 262-70.

SELECTION OF SUBJECTS AND PROCEDURE

The total number of subjects studied was 868, representing 10 per cent of all pupils in the eight schools participating in the study. The teachers were asked to choose from their classes 5 per cent of the pupils who were poor readers and 5 per cent who were good readers. The teachers used the following criteria in making their selections: (1) achievement tests in reading administered before selection, (2) their own rating of each pupil's status in reading, and (3) test scores derived from intelligence tests administered before the selection.

The mimeographed parent questionnaire form, which was developed by the Reading Laboratory at Syracuse University, consists of nine pages of questions. These are concerned with the child's environmental history, developmental history, emotional development, educational history and physical growth and health background. Most of the answers are of the free-response type.

Procedures of the study and the results of tests are described in the earlier report.

INFORMATION FROM PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE

The following information in the questionnaire was compared specifically to the reading status of the pupils:

1. Pupil likes and dislikes for school activities
2. Methods of parental control
3. Interests and hobbies
4. Physical development
5. Verbal communication
6. Frequency of nightmares
7. Physical characteristics
8. Parental level of aspiration for the child
9. Leadership status
10. Motor co-ordination

Summary statements gained from each table for each of the above categories are given in the following paragraphs.

Pupil likes and dislikes for school activities.—Ten per cent of the average and 10 per cent of the above-average readers express a liking for the language arts, according to parents. Twenty per cent of the average and of the above-average readers express a dislike for these subjects. A larger fraction, 34 per cent of the below-average readers, dislike the language arts, while only 3 per cent of these children express a liking for language activities. The implication derived from these results would seem to be that schools are failing to make the

language arts of sufficient interest to promote favorable reactions, even among the better readers.

Mathematics is liked by approximately the same per cents of good, average, and poor readers, but a greater per cent of superior readers, 26 per cent, dislike this subject. The likes and dislikes for science do not appear to be significantly different for above-average, average, or poor readers. Neither do there seem to be any significant trends or differences in relation to art and music.

Social studies, however, present a different picture. There seems to be an increasing dislike for this subject as we move from superior to below-average pupils. It would appear that the unfavorable reaction to social studies on the part of the average and the poor readers is a function of the inadequacy of the children in reading and that the better readers seem to enjoy the social studies significantly more than do the less able readers.

No significant trends are discernible in regard to extra-curriculum activities, except that the superior readers seem to like these activities slightly better than do the other groups. It is probable that superior readers have more time to participate in these activities. It is interesting to note that both superior and below-average readers express a greater liking for sports than do the average and above-average readers. For the superior group this might be explained by the fact that they have more time to engage in

sports. For the poor readers, however, it is possible that sports provide them a compensation for their academic inadequacies and might also take away from their effectiveness in the academic areas by appealing to their interest and consuming their time.

Methods of parental control.—The findings in this area would appear to be somewhat inconclusive despite certain minor trends. The main differences seem to be between above-average readers and the other groups. In only one method of control, that of suggestion, is there an obvious trend. While very slight, this trend is in favor of the superior and the above-average readers. Parental agreement concerning control indicated a slight difference in favor of the better readers. It is felt that this factor would play a direct part in the emotional tone of the home and, therefore, might affect the academic and reading status of the child.

Interests and hobbies.—Despite an expressed dislike for language arts and much of the reading done in school, almost half of the above-average and the superior readers have reading as an out-of-school interest or hobby, according to parents. About one-fourth of the average and only one-tenth of the below-average readers seem to be interested in reading at home. While art does not offer a significant variation, music seems to present a distinct difference in favor of the better readers. Writing as a hobby does not appear to be significantly different for

the four reading groups. Interest in science, however, is markedly in favor of the better readers, being found in only one case among the average and in no case among the poor readers. This might be an indication that better-than-average reading ability is a prerequisite for understanding and enjoying science materials and hence aiding in the development of an interest in the subject.

Handiwork, ownership of pets, and attendance at movies do not appear to provide significant trends, although the superior readers seem to have pets as hobbies much less frequently than do the other groups. Contrary to what might be expected, an interest in sports ranks high with a larger per cent of superior than of poor readers. Social activities, such as dancing, parties, and church events, are apparently of greater interest to the superior and the above-average than to the average and the poor readers. This fact might tend to discount the popular comment that good readers are likely to be "bookworms" who do not enjoy participation in social activities. No significant differences appear in the case of indoor and outdoor interests and hobbies. The only notable finding showed that a small per cent of poor readers enjoy indoor hobbies.

Physical development.—Three factors were considered in the area of physical development: the duration of the pregnancy during which the child was carried, the age at which the child first walked, and the age at which the

child first exercised control over elimination. Of these factors, elimination control is the only one that seems to have any significant relation to reading ability. Ninety-three per cent of the superior and above-average readers had controlled elimination before they were three years old, while only 78 per cent of the poor readers controlled elimination by the age of three. The mean age of control of elimination for each reading group was as follows: superior, 20.85 months; above-average, 20 months; average, 23.7 months; and below-average, 25.6 months. Inasmuch as elimination control might be regarded as one aspect of the emotional climate developed in the home, it is felt that these findings lend support to the hypothesis that some reading inadequacies may be related to poor emotional development during the formative preschool years.

While no significance can be attached to the differences in the per cents, it is interesting to note that there is a slight tendency for the superior readers to have been carried in a longer term of pregnancy.

Verbal communication.—There appears to be no correlation between bilingualism and reading status. There is, however, a slight difference operating against children who come from homes in which only a foreign language is spoken. The number involved, however, is so negligible that it appears not to be an important factor for those interested in reading development.

There appears to be some tendency on the part of poorer readers to find difficulty in communicating their meanings to others verbally.

Frequency of nightmares.—Responses to this question fail to disclose any significant differences between the good and the poor readers in the frequency of nightmares either at the time this study was made or in the past.

Physical characteristics.—The study indicates that the superior readers had the greatest per cent of visual defects. However, over 90 per cent of the defects found in superior readers had been corrected, while only 76 per cent of the visual defects among average readers were corrected.

There is no apparent relation between defective hearing and reading disability according to these findings.

This study failed to disclose any significant relation between handedness and reading status.

Parental level of aspiration for child.—Almost three times more superior readers than poor readers are expected by their parents to attend college. The trends seem highly significant in favor of the better readers' attaining higher education and a college degree.

Parents of better readers indicated that their children seem to prefer scientific areas and journalism. Those vocations preferred primarily by the poorer readers were farming, sports, music, clerical work, and skilled occupations. Vocations which failed to disclose any significant trends as to pref-

erence were education, medicine, law, business, the clergy, and the military. It is probably significant, however, that only a small per cent of poor readers plan to enter education as a profession. It is also interesting that preference for the career of medicine is centered in the superior and the average readers.

Leadership status.—As far as leadership activities are concerned, 51 per cent of the superior, 35 per cent of the above-average, 14 per cent of average, and 16 per cent of the below-average readers were holding or had held some position of leadership. Most of the above-average and the superior readers had held more than one such post, while among the poorer readers only one position of leadership was indicated. Five of the twelve poor readers were holding leadership posts in school sports. It might possibly be significant that only three of the leadership posi-

tions held by poor readers were under the direct control and jurisdiction of faculty members. This may indicate that teachers appoint only the average or the better readers to positions of leadership or service in the class. The ten lowest readers held no leadership positions whatsoever, despite the fact that three of these children were regarded by their parents as leaders. Only one of these ten was definitely listed as a follower.

Motor co-ordination.—No significant trend from superior to poor readers is indicated in the area of motor co-ordination.

The authors are continuing to study the relation of certain characteristics to reading ability. It is apparent from the studies already made that there are important relations between the home environment and other developmental characteristics which deserve further study.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON FOREIGN EDUCATION

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THROUGH Volume I: *Europe*, of the thirty-fourth issue of *Minerva Jahrbuch der Gelehrten Welt* (published in 1952 by Walter de Gruyter and Company, Berlin), we welcome this year the resumption of another yearbook on institutions of higher education in the various countries of the world, publication of which was suspended during World War II.

Mention should be made also of three educational missions sponsored by UNESCO and resulting in the *Report of the Mission to Burma*, the *Report of the Mission to Afghanistan*, and the *Report of the Mission to Thailand*.

All publications of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization which are listed below may be obtained from Columbia University Press, New York 27, New York.

GENERAL REFERENCES¹

311. *Access of Women to Education*. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [and] International Bureau of Education, Publication No. 141. Paris: UNESCO [and]

¹ See also Item 183 (Zinoviev) in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1953, issue of the *School Review*.

Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1952. Pp. 208.

This publication is the "outcome of an inquiry conducted by the International Bureau of Education with the addition of valuable statistical data supplied by UNESCO." Reports were received from forty-seven countries. "Discussion has been concentrated . . . on presenting, firstly, the facts in regard to women's education in the individual countries as given in the reports received and, secondly, the world aspects of the problems." The volume was planned "to serve as basis of discussion at the Fifteenth International Conference on Public Education, and for the framing of measures which take into account both the aims and the facts, and will thus be likely to prove practical and efficient."

312. ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITIES OF THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH. *The Yearbook of the Universities of the Commonwealth, 1952*. London: George Bell & Sons, Ltd., 1952. Pp. xxxii+1662.

This is the twenty-ninth issue of the *Yearbook of the Universities of the Commonwealth*. (See Item 294 in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1951, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.)

313. *Fourth Session of the General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization: Report of the United States Delegation*. U.S. Department of State Publication 4249. International Organization and Conference Series IV. United Nations

Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization 14. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1951. Pp. iv+56.

This comprises the official report of the United States Delegation to the fourth session of the General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization held at Paris, France, September 19 to October 5, 1949.

314. INTERNATIONAL LABOR OFFICE. *Child Labor in Relation to Compulsory Education*. Studies on Compulsory Education, V. Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 1951. Pp. 102.

This study forms a part of the series of booklets on "Studies in Compulsory Education" and covers "one of the chief economic factors in school attendance. The report presents an historical analysis of the subject and a full survey of the present situation in fifty-seven States Members of the ILO."

315. *International Yearbook of Education, 1951*. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [and] International Bureau of Education, Publication No. 137. Paris: UNESCO [and] Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1951. Pp. 304.

Gives the reports on educational developments presented by forty-nine countries to the Fourteenth International Conference on Public Education convened by UNESCO and the International Bureau of Education at Geneva in July, 1951. A general survey preceding the separate reports on each country indicates the varying solutions to universal problems used by reporting countries.

316. KNAPP, ROBERT B. (editor). *Orientation to America for Foreign Exchangees*. American Council on Education Studies, Vol. XVI. Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 54. Washington: American Council on Education, 1952. Pp. viii+78.

A report of a conference held under the auspices of the American Council on Education in Washington, D.C., June 19-21, 1952.

317. OESTRICH, GERHARD, and DEGENER, FRIEDA (editors). *Minerva Jahrbuch der gelehrten Welt*. Abteilung Universitäten und Fachhochschulen: I. *Europa: Vier- und dreissigster Jahrgang*. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter & Co., 1952. Pp. xxiv+1124.

Volume I, *Europe*, of the thirty-fourth issue of the *Minerva Jahrbuch*, a directory of institutions of higher education in the various countries of the world. Begun in 1890 as an international handbook of scientific institutions, it had expanded to a three-volume set by 1938 when the last issue prior to the war came off the press.

318. ORGANISATION DES NATIONS UNIES POUR L'ÉDUCATION, LA SCIENCE ET LA CULTURE [and] BUREAU INTERNATIONAL D'ÉDUCATION. *Annuaire international de l'éducation et de l'enseignement, 1951*. Publication No. 136. Paris: UNESCO [and] Geneva: Bureau International D'Éducation, 1951. Pp. 324.

A report on the educational developments during school year 1950-51 in forty-nine countries.

319. ORGANISATION DES NATIONS UNIES POUR L'ÉDUCATION, LA SCIENCE ET LA CULTURE [and] BUREAU INTERNATIONAL D'ÉDUCATION. *L'enseignement de l'écriture*. Publication No. 102. Paris: UNESCO, [1948]. Pp. 126.

Reports on the teaching of penmanship in the forty-eight countries, which were presented to the Eleventh International Conference on Public Education convened by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization and the International Bureau of Education at Geneva in 1948.

320. *Teaching of Natural Science in Secondary Schools*. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

[and] International Bureau of Education, Publication No. 139. Paris: UNESCO [and] Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1952. Pp. 216.

This study is a sequel to *Introduction to Natural Science in the Primary Schools*, (Item 302 in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1950, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*). The present study is based on reports from forty-eight countries presented to the Fifteenth International Conference on Public Education convened at Geneva in 1952 by UNESCO and the I.B.E. It deals "with the teaching of natural science proper and its various branches, and its aims, methods, and syllabuses." The replies "indicate in detail present tendencies in natural-science teaching at secondary level and clearly reveal the increasing emphasis on the biological aspects of the subject."

321. UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION. *Handbook on the International Exchange of Publications*. Paris: UNESCO, 1950. Pp. 370.

The English text is given on pages 92 to 137; the French, on pages 1 to 91. "International exchange of publications" as defined in chapter i is "a contract or arrangement whereby the parties concerned, belonging to different nations, give one another printed matter. This contract is based solely on the mutual consent of the parties; it is not, in principle, subject to any special formula."

322. UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION. *Records of the General Conference, Sixth Session, Paris, 1951: Proceedings*. Paris: UNESCO, 1951. Pp. 816.

Records and Proceedings of the General Conference of UNESCO held in Paris, from June 18 through July 11, 1951.

323. UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION. *Report to the United Nations, 1951-1952*. Paris: UNESCO, 1952. Pp. 206.

Following an introduction by Jaime Torres Bodet, director general of UNESCO, the *Report* comprises a chapter each on (1) some dominant themes in UNESCO's work, (2) UNESCO's activities in 1951, and (3) UNESCO's development in 1951. The *Report* concludes with nine appendixes.

324. UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION [and] INTERNATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION. *The Teaching of Reading*. Publication No. 113. Paris: UNESCO, 1948. Pp. 138.

Reviews reports on the teaching of reading in forty-seven countries, which were presented to the Twelfth International Conference on Public Education convened by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization and the International Bureau of Education at Geneva in 1949.

325. *The World of Learning, 1952*. London: Europa Publications, Ltd., 1952. Pp. xii+952.

After an international section devoted to (a) UNESCO, (b) International Council of Scientific Unions, and (c) other international educational, scientific, and cultural organizations, the publication is devoted to accounts of seventy-five countries. For each country a section is concerned with various items, such as learned societies, research institutions, libraries and archives, museums, universities, and schools of music and architecture.

BY COUNTRIES

AFGHANISTAN

326. UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION. *Report of the Mission to Afghanistan*. Educational Mission, IV. Paris: UNESCO, 1952. Pp. 88.

The report is based on data gathered by a mission of three consultants sent to Afghanistan by UNESCO in 1949 "to study the educational problems of that country and to report upon them."

AUSTRALIA

327. ALEXANDER, FRED. *Adult Education in Australia*. Occasional Papers, No. 2. New York: Fund for Adult Education, 1953. Pp. 38.

This publication comprises the substance of a talk given by Fred Alexander, professor of history at the University of Western Australia, at a Conference of the Adult Education Association of Victoria held in South Melbourne, Australia, on October 14, 1949.

BRITISH AFRICA

328. BRITISH INFORMATION SERVICES. *From Darkness to Light: New Developments in British Africa*. New York: British Information Services, 1949. Pp. 26.

A short section is devoted to "Mass Education," defined as "a movement designed to promote better living for the whole community, with the active participation and, if possible, on the initiative of the community; but, if this initiative is not forthcoming spontaneously, by the use of techniques for arousing and stimulating it in order to secure its active and enthusiastic response to the movement."

BURMA

329. UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION. *Report of the Mission to Burma*. Educational Mission, III. Paris: UNESCO, 1952. Pp. 96.

Under an agreement with the government of Burma signed February 20 and March 16, 1950, UNESCO "undertook to constitute a mission of three educators to make a study in Burma of . . . (a) fundamental and adult education; (b) the development of compulsory education; (c) secondary education, including technical education and vocational guidance; (d) the education of teachers; (e) the administration and financial aspects of these four subject fields."

CANADA

330. BOWERS, HENRY. *Research in the Training of Teachers*. Canada: J. M. Dent & Sons, Ltd., and Macmillan Co. of Canada, Ltd., 1952. Pp. viii+168.

A report of research carried out by the author at the Stratford and Ottawa Normal Schools "into the factors entering into, and the concomitants of, success in the practice teaching of practice teachers." In addition to academic background, the author has taken into consideration personality traits, social acceptability, capacity for leadership, and interests and activities before entering the teacher-training school.

DENMARK

331. UNGDOMSKOMMISSIONEN. *Ungdomen og Arbejdslivet*. Betaenkning afgivet af Ungdomskommissionen. Copenhagen: J. H. Schultz A/S. Universitets-Bogtrykkeri, 1952. Pp. 194.

A report on "Youth and Industrial Life" made by a youth commission. Part II of the report is devoted to the education of young people.

ENGLAND

332. CENTRAL OFFICE OF INFORMATION. *Education in Britain*. London: Reference Division, Central Office of Information, 1952. Pp. 64.

An account of education in Britain intended as reference material.

333. HUGHES, ARTHUR G. *Education and the Democratic Ideal*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1951. Pp. 138.

The book comprises nine talks given to teachers during the period 1948-51 by the chief inspector, Education Officer's Department, London County Council, on the following subjects: (1) "Education and the Democratic Ideal," (2) "The Democratic Ideal Today," (3) "Authoritarianism in Schools," (4) "Schools as Democratic Communities," (5) "Children and the Creative Spirit," (6) "What Do We Mean by Backwardness?" (7) "What

Do We Mean by Discipline?" (8) "The Comprehensive High-School Idea," (9) "From School to School: Some Principles of Transfer."

- ✓ 334. NATIONAL UNION OF TEACHERS. *The Curriculum of the Secondary School*. London: Evans Bros., Ltd., 1952. Pp. x+142.

The report of a consultative committee appointed in 1948 by the National Union of Teachers "to consider and report on the curricula appropriate to the secondary stage of education under the Education Act of 1944."

- ✓ 335. UNIVERSITY OF LONDON INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION. *Jubilee Lectures*. London: Evans Bros., Ltd., 1952. Pp. 128.

A series of six addresses commemorating the fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the London Day Training College now known as the Institute of Education of London University.

- ✓ 336. UNIVERSITY OF LONDON INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION. *Studies and Impressions, 1902-1952*. London: Evans Bros., Ltd., 1952. Pp. 248.

A book commemorating the fiftieth anniversary of the University of London Institute of Education. Each contributor to the book wrote from his own knowledge of some part of the Institute's history in which he was personally involved and therefore was able to tell much about the character, the thoughts, and the feelings of those who lived and worked in the college of bygone days.

FINLAND

337. KALLIO, NIILLO. *The School System of Finland*. Helsinki: Suomalaisen Kirjallisuuden Seuran Kirjapainon Oy, 1952 (third edition). Pp. 66.

Gives a general survey of education in Finland, covering elementary and secondary education, education of children with sensory defects, and vocational and adult education.

GERMANY

338. *Education for Citizenship in Vocational Schools*. Based on Reports of the Second International Conference on Vocational Education, Maulbronn, Germany, 1951. Stuttgart: Verlag Reinhold A. Mueller, 1952. Pp. 64.

"This was the second international conference dealing with vocational education problems, promoted by the Vocational Education Section of the U.S. Land Commission for Württemberg-Baden and arranged in co-operation with the Württemberg-Baden Ministry of Education and the German Vocational Teachers Associations." The conference was held in Maulbronn, Germany, on July 17-21, 1951, and laid special stress on social studies.

339. *Persönlichkeitsbildung durch Gemeinschaftserziehung*. Bericht über die Württemberg-Badischen Feriengemeinschaften, 1949-1951. Stuttgart: Verlag Reinhold A. Mueller, 1952. Pp. 28.

A report on one-week vacation camps, emphasizing social studies, held for 1,793 vocational-school pupils from sixteen to eighteen years of age in Württemberg-Baden during the summers of 1949-51 in an attempt to answer the question, "How do we teach our youth to become good citizens?"

340. STERNBERGER, DOLF. "The Social Sciences in Western Germany: A Postwar Survey." Washington: Library of Congress, 1950 (processed). Pp. 64.

A survey of intellectual life in Western Germany, prepared as part of a program sponsored by the Oberlaender Trust, Philadelphia.

INDIA

341. INTERNATIONAL STUDENT SERVICE. *Report on the ISS Summer in India and Pakistan: Including the Report of the XXIII Annual Conference of the International Student Service on University*

Expansion in the Service of International Understanding and National Progress, Bombay, India, August 11-20, 1950. Geneva: International Student Service, 1950. Pp. 108.

A report of the program of the International Student Service in India and Pakistan during the summer of 1950, comprising an inter-university seminar in Mysore, India, from July 12 to August 3; the ISS Annual Conference at Bombay, from August 11 to 20; and a study-travel program in India and Pakistan, from August 3 to 19 and from August 25 to September 4-6. The conference was attended by representatives from twenty-three countries.

JAPAN

342. SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS, CIVIL INFORMATION AND EDUCATION SECTION. *Mission and Accomplishments in the Civil and Information Fields.* Tokyo: Civil Information and Education Section, 1950. Pp. 26 [processed].

Pages 10-26 of the report are concerned with education in Japan.

NEW ZEALAND

343. *Compulsory Education in New Zealand.* Studies on Compulsory Education, X. Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 1952. Pp. 132.

"This study forms part of a series designed to show how the principle of universal, free, and compulsory education is being applied in various parts of the world; to illustrate the problems that have been encountered in developing satisfactory systems of compulsory schooling; and to describe the solutions achieved or being attempted." (See Items 275, 282, 293, 312, 314, and 323 in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.)

SCOTLAND

344. SCOTTISH EDUCATION DEPARTMENT. *Rural Subjects in Secondary Schools.* Edinburgh: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1952. Pp. 16.

The general background of any scheme of instruction for rural pupils must take into consideration, according to the Scottish Education Department, that the "educational needs of pupils in rural areas are not substantially different from those of pupils who live in town. The aim of the rural teacher like that of his town colleague, is to give a sound general education. In doing this, he should use to the full the opportunities provided by the particular environment of the school and should also have regard to the way of life his pupils are likely to follow."

SWEDEN

345. LINDEGREN, ALINA M. *Education in Sweden.* Federal Security Agency, Office of Education Bulletin 1952, No. 17. Pp. viii+90.

A factual account of education in Sweden based on data gathered by the author during a visit to that country in 1949 and supplemented since then through documentation.

346. ÖSTERGREN, BERTIL. *Higher Education in Sweden: A Handbook for Foreign Students.* Translated by ALAN BLAIR. Stockholm: Swedish Institute, 1952. Pp. 132.

"The handbook deals with universities and colleges, together with certain training colleges below university level considered of interest to the student from abroad. Also dealt with are studies at research institutes; opportunities for studying government and social institutions, industries, etc.;" and, finally, "courses specially intended for foreign students."

THAILAND

347. JUMSAI, M. L. MANICH. *Compulsory Education in Thailand.* Studies on Com-

pulsory Education, VIII. Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 1951. Pp. 110.

Forms part of a group of studies planned by UNESCO to clarify the problems of universal, compulsory, and free education. It was "written by a Thai educator with long experience in his own country and abroad. In providing his analysis of the situation he has found it necessary to relate educational growth to the cultural and economic context within which it occurs; and the study thus acquires additional value as a detailed account of Thai education accessible to foreign students."

348. UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION. *Report of the Mission to Thailand*. UNESCO Educational Missions, Pub-

lication No. 630. Paris: UNESCO, 1950. Pp. 60.

"This report consists largely of observations and recommendations based on a brief study of the educational situation in Thailand, in accordance with instructions from the head of the Fundamental Education Division of UNESCO."

TURKEY

349. SASSANI, ABUL H. K. *Education in Turkey*. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education Bulletin 1952, No. 10. Pp. viii+96.

A factual account of education in Turkey based on data gathered by the author during a visit to that country in June, 1951, and supplemented since then through documentation.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF PROFESSORS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION, *Problems and Issues in Public School Finance: An Analysis and Summary of Significant Research and Experience*. Edited by R. L. JOHNS, chairman, and E. L. MORPHET, co-chairman. New York 27: Distributed by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. Pp. xiv+492. \$4.50.

A group of the best authorities in the nation on school financial support set themselves the task in 1950 of making a midcentury appraisal of what was currently known about sound policies in financing public education. In *Problems and Issues in School Finance* they present probably the most complete bibliography on the subject ever assembled.

It is evident that the foundation pattern of school support—with its acceptance of state responsibility for education coupled with a partnership approach to school support between the state and the local community—has gained general approval throughout most of the nation. It seems generally recognized that the local contribution will continue to come largely from property-tax sources. Several of the authors of the book under review make a case for continuation of the property tax, with all its shortcomings, as an important base for school support, and for generous freedom for local communities to utilize it. The value of local initiative in experimentation and expansion of what is termed the "growing edge" of educational services is emphasized. A strong faith is repeatedly expressed in the soundness of educational choices made at the local level,

and there is evident a fear of loss of initiative with stultification of growth if too many of the required decisions are arrived at through the more conservative consensus generally characteristic at the state level.

The authors of *Problems and Issues in Public School Finance* bring forward a remarkable number of problems and issues to which they found no solutions in the research literature. It has been evident for years, for instance, that educators need to devise some understandable and usable measure of the educational product that will permit the taxpayers, who make the choices of where their tax dollars shall be expended, to evaluate more adequately the returns obtained for dollars expended. Yet the best answer we can give them in the middle of the twentieth century is that we have evidence that, the more money we spend, the more education we get for it—not very good evidence and, on the whole, not a very good answer.

The problem of tax loads for educational services has received intensive study but, too often, not in relation to taxation for other governmental services or in relation to shared taxes and partnership patterns developed in the several states in support of other services. The diversity of those patterns makes virtually meaningless any comparisons between states on the criterion of state support to education in relation to the impact on local tax levies.

Problems and Issues in Public School Finance is an important work in the field of school finance. It throws a cold light on some of the blind alleys that research in the area has followed. It faces up to the unbelievable complexities with which solutions to some of the major issues must deal, and the fact that in

our changing society no solutions will be permanent is recognized.

Experimentations in some forty-two states with variations of the foundation pattern of school support have not been uniformly successful. If we can agree, as these authorities seem to, that local control of the schools is one of the great safeguards of our way of life, we need to bestir ourselves in finding answers to some simple questions:

1. How much should it cost to educate a child?

2. How much more education can we give him for each additional dollar we expend?

3. How much of the cost should be borne by the local community to insure maximum interest in the program, maximum initiative in efficient expenditure of tax dollars, and maximum participation in improvement?

4. How may the state best discharge its responsibility to equalize the cost and insure an adequate educational program for each child in the state without undue interference that will negate the objectives stated in Question 3.

The time during which the schools have been supported as a service of government is remarkably short in this nation and in all nations. To assume that the pattern developed in the United States in the past half-century or the past century is fixed, and that we have only to project it to predict future developments, is to be extremely shortsighted. Local needs will be served, and local demands will be met. If support within the framework of governmental service proves inflexible to local demands, that framework will be abandoned, whatever the cost. Two recent developments that challenge the whole concept of public education as a function of state government are powerful as evidence: the enormous increases in parochial and private school enrollments and the reported plans of a number of southern states to abandon education as a state function if racial segregation is not permitted.

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✓ *Clinical Studies in Reading. II.—With Emphasis on Vision Problems.* Edited by HELEN M. ROBINSON. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 77. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. x+190. \$3.75.

This monograph is a collection of papers reflecting the aims and activities of the University of Chicago Reading Clinic. The papers are grouped to exemplify the four major purposes of the clinic—services, staff research, graduate research, and the dissemination of significant information. The first part consists of a single paper discussing, and illustrating by case studies, the problems met in the clinical treatment of visually handicapped poor readers. Staff research activities are illustrated in four papers forming the second major section of the monograph. A third part offers four research papers by graduate students who have participated in the clinic. The contents of these eight research reports show the marked interests of the clinic in the visual difficulties of poor readers and in the influence of such factors as personality, eye-hand preference, speed of motor activity, sex differences, auditory deficiencies, and reading materials. Part IV contains five papers contributed at a Conference on Vision and Reading sponsored by the clinic. Four of these were prepared by specialists in various aspects of vision, while one is a report on the effects of classroom conditions on reading. The final section is devoted to a chapter summarizing each of the preceding research reports.

The research reports of the staff and graduate students vary considerably in quality and thoroughness. Several are preliminary or exploratory studies and suffer from the handicaps of a small number of subjects and a lack of familiarity with the implications of earlier research. In several other reports, the lack of tabular data and of a clear indication of the statistical safeguards used make it difficult to evaluate their conclusions.

At the other extreme, however, there are

a number of excellent and carefully constructed experimental reports. Outstanding among these are a factor analysis of a large number of vision tests and a discussion of the clinical treatment of visually handicapped poor readers. Other papers of high quality are the studies of the validity of classroom symptoms of visual difficulty and of the auditory deficiencies of poor readers.

It is a difficult matter to collate and relate research in a field with as broad ramifications as that of reading. This monograph represents an enviable effort in this direction. It has re-evaluated the tools of clinical diagnosis of vision and then rearranged the data obtained in the studies of vision to determine new applications and different interrelationships. It has attempted to bring together the techniques of the clinical psychologist, the optometrist, the specialist in child development, the reading clinician, and the classroom teacher and to help these techniques contribute to the common goal of understanding better those who fail to learn to read well.

GEORGE SPACHE

University of Florida



The Function of the Public Schools in Dealing with Religion. A Report on the Exploratory Study Made by the Committee on Religion and Education. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1953. Pp. xiv+146. \$2.00.

The latest in a series of studies and reports appearing in recent years on the relation of religion to public education, this volume goes further than its predecessors in preparing the way for positive action. It is a report of a study of current practices and opinions conducted under the direction of Dr. Clarence Linton, of Columbia University. Co-operating in the study were one thousand religious leaders representing the three major faiths in our country and some three thousand educators. Questionnaires and "opin-

ionnaires" were used to get basic information, with follow-up conferences with selected respondents.

The study is defined as follows: "an inquiry into the function of the public schools, in their own right and on their own initiative, in assisting youth to have an intelligent understanding of the historical and contemporary role of religion in human affairs." This definition meant placing emphasis upon the search for a sound educational policy in this area in contrast to giving undue consideration to the wishes of religious groups.

The elementary and secondary schools are the educational levels upon which the study concentrates. The volume suggests that a factual study of religion in the public schools is the best method of developing religious literacy and recommends that this type of study be undertaken whenever religion appears as a natural part of the curriculum. The survey reveals three main patterns of treatment of religion in the public school.

1. *Avoidance of religion.*—Reasons given for this attitude vary from fear of violating the principle of the separation of church and state to the belief that attention to religion means bad education.

3. *Planned religious activities.*—Examples of these activities are reading the Bible, planning special programs to celebrate religious holidays, forming religious clubs, and close co-operation with local churches and synagogues.

3. *Factual study of religion.*—This pattern appears most often in connection with literature and the social studies. Typical of the topics in the social studies are the meaning of religious liberty, the place of the church and the synagogue in the community, and the influence of religion on our national life.

The committee recognizes that the factual study of religion does not necessarily make children religious, but it believes that this type of study encourages them to appreciate the contributions of religion to our culture and to consider intelligently the importance

of religion to the individual. It recommends further study and experimentation, starting within the public schools and with the assistance of teacher-training institutions, to help prepare teachers to handle such experiments.

This study is significant because of its thoroughness, objectivity, and honesty. It faces two basic issues: finding qualified teachers and securing community assent. It gives evidence of concern among educators.

It presents specific suggestions for sound educational experimentation within the framework of the American traditions of religious liberty and the separation of church and state. Its suggestions are good in theory but difficult in practice—because of fears, either real or imaginary, among various religious groups.

VIRGIL HENRY

Public Schools
Orland Park, Illinois



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THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL

Volume LIV

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SEPTEMBER 1953

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Number 1

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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A NEW CENTER FOR STUDY OF BEHAVIOR

RALPH W. TYLER, of the University of Chicago, who as chairman of the Editorial Committee steered the course of the *Elementary School Journal* for ten years, has been named director of the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences, recently established by the Ford Foundation, it was announced in June by Frank Stanton, chairman of the Center's Board of Directors and president of the Columbia Broadcasting System. As executive head of the Center, the site for which has yet to be selected, Dr. Tyler will administer a program for advanced study in individual behavior and human relations.

The Ford Foundation has appropriated the sum of \$3,500,000 to cover the costs of the Center's program over a six-year period. The funds will be used principally to permit approxi-

mately fifty scholars and scientists of the first rank to come together at the Center each year for study and training.

Speaking for the Board of the Center, Dr. Stanton said: "Dr. Tyler is especially well equipped to serve as director of the Center. He was chairman of the planning group composed of eminent scholars in the behavioral sciences that recommended the establishment of the Center and designated its major characteristics. As an expert in the field of educational psychology, he is a recognized leader in the behavioral sciences in this country."

The objectives of the Center are (1) to increase as rapidly as possible the number of highly competent scholars and scientists dealing with problems of human behavior, (2) to provide further opportunities for advanced study for present faculty members, (3) to encourage collabora-

tion across traditional departmental lines, and (4) to make available new designs and materials for advanced study for use in graduate schools throughout the country.

THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP

THE California State Department of Education has released a study entitled *The Elementary School Principalship in California* (Bulletin of the Department, Vol. XXII, No. 5, May, 1953). A summary of a doctoral dissertation by Lloyd Bevans, the study brings up to date a 1933 study along the same lines. Responses to questionnaires were received from 42 per cent of the principals in California elementary schools employing six or more teachers. Comparative statements were based on this sampling.

Eighty-four per cent of those responding were full-time supervisors as compared to 51 per cent in 1933. The proportion of men principals has increased since 1933, markedly so in districts with over 1,000 pupils. Men principals tend to be younger and to move more rapidly from the smaller districts. More married men and married women are employed as principals than in 1933.

The median years of schooling for principals in California was reported as 17.5, the equivalent of half a year of work beyond the Master's degree. Analysis of the data regarding the professional preparation of principals was summarized in the following conclusions:

The period of professional preparation for the elementary-school principalship is lengthening; non-graduation from high school is very much of an exception among elementary-school principals; women principals are nearly as well prepared as are men principals; principals have acquired approximately one-fifth of their college and university preparation through attendance during summer sessions.

In 1951 principals reported a median of 6.1 years of experience in the principalship; in 1933 the median was 8.6 years. In general, they had held other elementary-school principalships prior to their 1951 positions. The main source of recruitment was from teaching positions in elementary schools. As a group they seemed satisfied with their work. About 92 per cent of the men and 95 per cent of the women planned to continue in elementary-school administration.

Although salaries have increased since 1933, the study concluded that in purchasing power the typical principal had a somewhat smaller salary in 1951. The differential between salaries of men and women seems to have disappeared. In fact, the median salary paid nonteaching women principals was \$379 more than that paid nonteaching men principals in 1951.

Fewer than half of the principals in 1933 participated with the superintendent in the selection of teachers. By 1951, 66 per cent of the principals had a part in selection. There was a more marked increase in the number who participated in decisions involving the transfer of teachers.

Although the study reported more

clerical assistance for principals and less reliance on pupils and teachers for clerical help, it also found that the principal was spending more of his work week in duties of a clerical nature. The reason was concluded to lie "in the nature of certain clerical duties and the relative importance of those tasks in the total educational setting of the school."

The summarizing statement concluding the study ends on a prophetic note:

It is apparent from information presented in this study that the past two decades, particularly the past few years, have offered unprecedented opportunity for the professional advancement of the elementary-school principalship in California. Increased enrolment alone has necessitated adjustments within school systems which generally have increased the size of the administrative unit in elementary schools, thereby improving the professional status of the elementary-school principalship. How much of the improvement results from the state-wide pattern of growth and progress and how much is the result of effort by elementary-school administrators to improve their professional status is difficult to ascertain. The importance of the elementary-school principalship in the educational scene can be clearly visualized. Opportunity for the further development of the elementary-school principalship which results from increased enrolment in elementary schools and larger administrative units is likely to continue through at least another decade.

ON THE OPTIMISTIC SIDE

WE ARE SO OFTEN engaged in fighting a rear-guard action against those who would eliminate from schools the modern trend toward the

individualization of treatment of children that we fail to appreciate the progress that is being made. As a practicing physician and psychiatrist who "sees at times the most flagrant evidences of the physical, emotional, social, and moral neglect of children," Dr. George E. Gardner, director of the Judge Baker Guidance Center in Boston, recently found occasion to express an optimistic view of the contemporary scene. *Understanding the Child* for June, 1953, reports a talk that he made at a session of the Play Schools Association Conference in New York, in which he said:

I am thoroughly convinced that nowhere in the world at any time in history has the level of adequate child care been as high as it is in America today. . . .

I am convinced too that no society of parents, taken by and large, have ever been so desirous of extending to their children—and so eager to *prepare* themselves to extend to their children—the over-all thoughtful and scientific care of their children as are the parents in present day America.

The Fund for Adult Education, established by the Ford Foundation, has recently initiated a project designed to build on this attitude. The objective of the Fund for Adult Education, expressed broadly, is the development of mature and responsible citizens in a free, democratic society. Parents are a strategic group of adults who exercise a direct influence over the future of our society. To reach this group, the Fund has made a two-year grant to the University of Chicago Parent Education Project. Ethel Kawin, of the University of Chicago, director of the

project, defines its purposes in the following terms:

The purpose of the Parent Education Project is to help parents create for their children the kind of environment conducive to the development of mature, responsible citizens, able to build, to function in, and to maintain a free, democratic society. Environment is broadly conceived to include the child's experiences in family, school, and community life. However, in a program of parent education, emphasis would be put upon parental understandings and attitudes and upon the patterns of family life established in the home. Parents should be encouraged to study those characteristics and abilities which are essential to successful participation in a free society, and ways of helping children to develop these characteristics and abilities.

Since the reactions of children vary in response to the attitudes and behavior of adults around them, parents who engage in such study come inevitably to the problem of developing their own personalities. To understand the role of a parent, it is necessary to know the needs of children; to meet the needs of children leads to increased comprehension of the role of the parent.

With the aid of an advisory panel of competent scholars, an experimental basic course will be set up around two questions:

1. What are the foundations which should be built into the personality and behavior of a child to help him become the kind of person able to function successfully as a free citizen in a democratic society?
2. What characteristics and attitudes should adults strive for in their parental roles of helping to build these foundations in the child?

From the answers to these questions, materials for study-discussion groups will be prepared, "packaged" to include printed booklets, articles, suggested references, films, recordings, dramatizations, and study guides. It is hoped that radio and television programs may eventually enter the project.

When the basic materials have been tested and revised, wide distribution is envisaged. Supplementary courses are inevitable. Children grow, and parents must grow with them. In view of the expanding nature of the project, Director Kawin stated in the announcement of the project:

This Parent Education Project looks eventually to wide distribution of materials to parent groups. The *ideal* would be to engage every parent in the land in some study and discussion of how to bring up his offspring to build, function in, and maintain a free society. To move toward this goal, co-operation of organizations and agencies interested in parent education will be welcomed.

TOWARD BETTER TEXTBOOKS

AT A recent meeting sponsored by the Education Communications Service at the University of Chicago, a group of distinguished foreign educators commented with some wonderment about the place of textbooks in American schools. The overdependence on textbooks in some quarters induced criticism; the use of many books, magazines, films, and other materials excited their admiration. In the main, they were amazed at the beauty and variety of books for children.

Textbooks are much in the news lately. Uneasy is the editorial department of any textbook publishing house which has issued a book with an unguarded use of such a word as "collective." We who have grown accustomed to the declining importance of any single textbook in an instructional situation find it difficult to comprehend the ready acceptance of an attack upon the textbooks used in the schools.

The 1953 Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, in discussing the *American School Curriculum*, devotes a chapter to teaching aids. One scant paragraph is devoted to the textbook as such; thirty-seven pages are devoted to other teaching aids and methods of selection. According to the American Textbook Publishers Institute, a thousand new textbook titles were published in 1951.

At a recent meeting of the Institute attended by executives of seventy publishers who do about 94 per cent of the country's textbook business, a statement was issued reading in part as follows:

The schools, and the citizens supporting them, demand that textbooks be free of subversive or harmful material of any sort. Publishers believe that the small-business nature of textbook publishing and the highly individualistic and competitive system under which textbooks are written, produced, distributed, and selected have provided and will continue to provide *adequate* safeguards against the deliberate introduction of harmful or subversive material.

The competitive nature of the textbook business is not news to the typi-

cal elementary-school principal, who wades through a drove of salesmen every Tuesday morning. It is ironic that an enterprise as purely capitalistic as the textbook business should be subject to so much criticism as being subversive. Textbooks are published to make money.

Competing salesmen soon find the flaws in any book. A constant race for revision and improvement is under way. In one way or another, most teachers have participated in the evaluation, criticism, and selection of textbooks. Eventually, all these efforts result in improved books. The most striking example of textbook revision to come to our attention recently is reported in *School Briefs*, a bulletin issued by Scott, Foresman and Company. David Hamm, a pupil in the second-grade room taught by Mary Donovan in Maple Grove School, Norton Township, Muskegon, Michigan, spotted what he thought was an error in his reader. One of the pictures in the textbook showed a self-propelled crane going down the street to an excavation job. David wrote the publishers a letter: "A shovel like that can't travel on the streets. It would ruin them. You have to haul a shovel like that on a truck."

The Chicago Bureau of Streets agreed with David's criticism, although the Caterpillar Tractor Company maintained that the type of flat-crawler tread shown in the illustration could travel on residential streets without causing damage. Scott, Foresman and Company have had the pic-

ture redrawn to show the power shovel traveling by flat-bed trailer.

IMPROVED DISTRICT ORGANIZATION

IN 1932 the number of school districts in the United States was slightly in excess of 127,500; in 1950 that number had declined to about 83,200. C. O. Fitzwater, of the United States Office of Education, estimates the 1953 total as fewer than 72,000. Writing in *School Life* for March, 1953, he states:

Viewed in terms of the large number involved, progress during the past two decades in reducing our oversupply of small inadequate local school districts seems little short of remarkable.

Most of the districts eliminated have been small one-teacher districts. Notably in Illinois, Washington, West Virginia, and Kansas, however, many twelve-grade districts have been included in the new consolidations. Mr. Fitzwater continues:

Reorganization of such districts over the past twenty years has resulted in the establishment of new administrative units of varying characteristics. In a number of instances larger elementary districts were created in the open country by mergers of two, three, four, or perhaps a half-dozen one-teacher districts. Many districts no longer operating a school were merged with an adjoining operating district. Many twelve-grade village districts have been enlarged from time to time by reaching out and taking in a few surrounding one-teacher districts.

Specific methods of effecting reorganization have varied among the several states. In West Virginia the legislature abolished all local school

districts in 1933 and incorporated them in 55 county systems. A more typical practice in the so-called "county-unit states" has been the gradual elimination of the smaller independent districts. In 1934 the Kentucky legislature directed the incorporation in the county units of all districts having fewer than 250 pupils. In 1948 the Arkansas legislature did likewise for all districts having fewer than 350 pupils.

Another method of eliminating small districts by legislative fiat is exemplified by the 1949 law in Texas requiring the consolidation with neighboring districts of all districts which had failed to operate a school for two successive years. A similar enactment in Illinois in 1951 eliminated 640 districts. Lest consolidation by legislative enactment be considered typical, Mr. Fitzwater continues:

However, in recent years most states engaged in reorganization have not employed direct methods. In 1941 Washington adopted a plan which has been used, with variations, in a number of others. A state commission on school district reorganization was created and empowered to give leadership and provide services in a concerted effort to reorganize local school districts. The law also provided for county committees to develop reorganization plans, each of which, on approval by the state commission, was submitted to a vote of the people living within the area of the proposed new district. This plan resulted in reducing the number of districts from 1,451 in 1940 to 591 in 1950.

Using procedures somewhat similar, Illinois has eliminated 9,000 districts; Minnesota and Wisconsin, 1,000 each; Idaho, 700; and Missouri, 3,000. New

York continues the program begun in 1925, which has brought 80 per cent of the area of the state into reorganized districts and has recently provided a method for enlarging the earlier consolidations into community-type units. The general trend is summarized by Mr. Fitzwater:

By far the most common type of local district resulting from reorganization in recent years is what is commonly termed a community unit. Such districts are formed on the basis of socioeconomic patterns of association which local people naturally tend to follow in their day-to-day activities. The vast majority contain a trading center, usually a village or small city, and include the surrounding countryside from which people come to trade and to engage in social activities. The boundaries of such districts are seldom coterminous with those of the county. Most usually their territory includes only a part of one county but frequently parts of more than one.

A study recently conducted by the Office of Education based on 552 reorganized districts in eight states shows that, despite great variations in a few, the majority of those studied ranged in area from 50 to 125 miles, had populations ranging from 1,200 to 5,000, and that less than 2 per cent of the total number were county units. Approximately 8,400 old districts were combined in these 552 reorganized units, an average of 15 per reorganization. All but 43 of them included at least one old district which operated a high school.

Often the reorganization is an administrative change, with the shifting of attendance units to be accomplished by the new governing body. Writing in *California Schools* of May, 1953, Drayton B. Nuttall, chief of the California Bureau of School District

Organization, points out that 17 districts created since 1944 from 106 former districts reduced the number of attendance units from 173 to 166 by 1952. There was an increase in the number of schools serving Grades VII-IX and VII-XII; a decrease in the number of one-room schools. Apparently, the actual consolidation of attendance units in these districts is a slow process requiring long deliberation and planning.

RESEARCH ON EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

THOSE CHILDREN who differ from the typical child so much as to require special provisions for their education and care we call, for want of a better term, "exceptional children." They include the mentally gifted or talented, the mentally retarded, the visually or auditorily defective, the physically crippled or handicapped, the emotionally and socially maladjusted, and the defective in speech.

The number for whom special classes are maintained by public or private schools and the number in institutions have steadily increased since 1900. The extent to which this increased interest is due to awakening social responsibility and the extent to which it is due to an actual increase in the proportion of these children in the general population cannot be determined with finality. Survey data are not available for comparison. In fact, only estimates can be obtained as to the number of exceptional children in the present population. It is known

that many handicapped who formerly died at birth or during childhood are saved by modern medicine.

This very uncertainty points up the need for research in the area. The problem of what can be, and should be, done for many such children remains unsolved. The cost is a problem. The social effect of lack of solutions is largely unmeasured.

In the state of Illinois the cost of programs for deviates increased from six million dollars to twenty million dollars in eight years, with untold numbers of children still unreached. During that period there was little increase in systematic research on how best to use the money appropriated. In 1952 an Institute for Research on Exceptional Children was created by the University of Illinois. Discussing the Institute, Samuel A. Kirk and Willard B. Spalding, in the *Educational Forum* for May, 1953, express the need for it, in part, as follows:

Extensive and intensive study of handicapped and gifted children has not increased in proportion to the increase in services and provisions to the ever increasing number of exceptional children. One reason why research has not kept pace with service is the lack of highly trained researchers who know the problems in this field. At present, research consists largely of isolated Master's and Doctor's theses or the by-products of other research. Such studies as have been made have usually been dropped by the participants upon completion. Very few researchers are doing long-term studies or are devoting their lives to significant research in this area.

The major research on handicapped children has been primarily in the medical and psychological fields. The research in these

areas has been focused primarily on diagnosis. When physical handicapping conditions can be corrected by the medical profession, the child is no longer "an exceptional child." The child who is handicapped is one who, after medical treatment, continues to be visually defective, auditorily defective, or mentally defective. The areas of the socially maladjusted and the gifted are not primarily medical problems, and little medical work has been done in these areas.

Contributions to programs for exceptional children have come from psychology, education, sociology, medicine, biology, speech, and many other areas of knowledge. Educating an exceptional child requires a physical, neurological, and psychological examination, as well as programs of social and educational planning. One discipline alone cannot provide the facts needed to understand and help the exceptional child. Research in the field of exceptional children, therefore, should be interdisciplinary.

The authors also believe that studies of deviates will contribute to knowledge about "normal" children. The research will be supported by a number of agencies, including welfare, state department branches, and, for a time, national agencies. Location of experimental groups will be determined in part by the location of numbers of the particular deviate to be studied in public and private institutions.

The general purpose of the Institute—to extend research in the social sciences—is further amplified:

Present plans for the Institute call for four areas of major endeavor. The first is a study of the effects of *extrinsic* factors on the learning, motivation, adjustment, and general development of deviating children. Such projects usually deal with the ways in which training, culture, environment, and social

class affect the development of handicapped and gifted children. A second group of projects deals with the effects of *intrinsic* factors of disability—motor, sensory, and mental—on the development and adjustment of the handicapped. A third effort will furnish opportunities for advanced graduate students to study the problems involved in these fields. A fourth endeavor of the Institute will disseminate scientific information to workers in the field.

The pursuit of these plans will cut across a number of disciplines. For example, the problems of public and private institutions in providing care and education for handicapped children are only part of the picture. There is need for sociological studies of the effect of such children on family life. To give a more concrete picture of studies under way or planned, the following topics are discussed in detail:

1. Research to determine the effects of preschool education on the social and mental development of children who show slow mental growth at an early age.
2. The effects of intensive specialized instruction on the school adjustment and achievement of retarded children at the age of six.
3. *Research on the education and care of the mentally deficient.*
4. Studies on gifted children.
5. Research in somatopsychology.
6. The development of diagnostic instruments.
7. Research in the diagnosis, educational and social treatment and rehabilitation of cerebral-palsied children.
8. Studies of language disorders.
9. Research on the mental development and thinking processes of children with sensory handicaps.
10. Training workers in research methodology in problems of handicapped and gifted children.

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE SCHOOLS

Education on the bus Who would attempt to teach a class with his back to the children, his entire view of the group limited to a small mirror which constantly vibrated to the incessant motion of the "classroom," both hands and both feet occupied with a steering wheel, gears, and levers, and his major attention focused on the frenzied traffic of a modern highway?

This is what the school bus-driver attempts each day in thousands of districts. The school bus is a learning situation. Only the professional educator could be expected to be alert to the problem. The unthinking are prone to look upon the learning process as something which can be turned off and on like a faucet. Parents, however, are acutely aware of the influence of the bus ride on their children. Many a consolidation proposal has been defeated because a neighboring district has been unmindful of the habits and attitudes engendered on the bus.

Too often those schools which *recognize the problem are preoccupied* with its negative aspect, the maintenance of discipline. As the school cafeteria can be changed from a chronic source of minor discipline problems to a means for teaching table manners, nutrition, and hygiene, so can the school bus become a laboratory for teaching safety, traffic rules, and citizenship.

D. W. Clements, principal of the Macon County High School in Notasulga, Alabama, reports one such

project in the May, 1953, issue of the *Alabama School Journal*. Teachers and bus drivers met to make an initial outline of goals to be achieved. At first, goals were largely in terms of maintaining order. Teacher sponsors, the student council, and student-patrol members nurtured the project through the stages of the inevitable safety contest, clean-up campaign, and poster contest to the development of "Things That Children Who Ride the Busses Should Be Taught." Eventually, the project involved a major activity of the civics class.

Among comments received and quoted by Principal Clements, that of a harassed bus-driver has a poignant ring: "The best project that has ever been put on in the school since I have been driving, and this is my eleventh year."

Teachers learn about emotions We are indebted to Stephen Abrahamson, assistant professor of education at the University of Buffalo for the following account of an in-service education program developed by Yale University and the Bureau of Intercultural Education through the Department of Rural Education in Hartford, Connecticut. These groups provided consultants for group meetings of teachers throughout the state.

An average group consisted of about twenty-one teachers from five schools in a particular rural area. This group of teachers met once a week for a two-hour session of lecture and discussion. On the day of the meeting the educational consultant was available to the teachers in their classrooms for help in

observing children in whom the teachers were particularly interested. There were fifteen such meetings during which films and tests were employed in addition to the lecture and discussion methods.

During these fifteen meetings the teachers first considered the theory of emotional needs as developed by Louis E. Rath, of New York University, in *An Application to Education of the Needs Theory* (Bronxville, New York: Modern Education Service, Box 26). The next meetings were devoted to techniques of diagnosing the unmet needs of children in the classrooms of the teachers. Once the unmet needs were diagnosed, the teachers planned programs to try to meet these needs. At all times, the educational consultant was available to teachers who wished his help. Then in the final meetings the teachers evaluated the work which they had done as individuals and as a group.

Eighty-two per cent of the teachers felt that the children whom they had selected for special treatment had responded to the "needs-theory" treatment. For evidence the teachers pointed to behavior changes: the over-aggressive children seemed much less so; the over-submissive children seemed to have acquired some spark and spunk; the withdrawn children seemed to become more open; and the children with frequent attacks of illness (psychosomatic) seemed to have fewer and less severe attacks. In addition to the behavior changes, the teachers also indicated other gains, such as improved attendance, growth in academic fields, better assumption of responsibilities, and more constructive attitudes.

Thirteen per cent of the teachers said that they had observed little or no change in the children, and 5 per cent observed some change for the "better" but felt that the changes were not necessarily due to the "needs-theory" treatment.

Almost all the teachers (94 per cent) felt that they were relating themselves differently to students as a result of the greater insights they had gained about the behavior of children in general. As a result of this new

relationship, they also felt changes in the classroom atmosphere, with less tension among the children, less tension between pupils and teachers—all in all, a happier classroom for everybody concerned.

The parent-teacher conference—The use of the parent-teacher conference as a means of reporting pupil progress seems to be on the increase. Paul A. Shelly, principal of the Ocean Grove School in Ocean Grove, New Jersey, provides a description of the development of the program in his school and of the extent to which the technique is approved by the parents.

The staff of the school has found that the parents give the parent-teacher conference nearly 100 per cent acceptance. While mere numbers in themselves may be deceptive in interpreting the real effectiveness of these conferences, the faculty feel that the data act as a reasonably accurate barometer in determining the effectiveness of the technique in their school.

During the school year 1952-53, of a total of 287 pupils enrolled, 226 children (nearly 80 per cent) were represented by parent or guardian at a scheduled parent-teacher conference, once or twice during the year. More than half of the parents of the remaining 20 per cent conferred informally with the teachers after school hours or by telephone. Most of the remaining 10 per cent represented pupils in Grades VII and VIII, where report cards were still issued.

When the conference program was begun in 1946, all pupils were receiving report cards, and, in addition, parents were given the opportunity of conferring with the child's teacher several times annually. Each year since then, report cards have been dropped in a successive grade, starting with Grade I, and conferences became the standard channel for home-school relations.

Conference sessions are now held three

times annually. Parents are informed of the coming sessions by a personally addressed form letter, which is sent by mail. The letter gives the dates and hours of the conference sessions and perhaps includes a paragraph of selected information chosen to stimulate the interest of parents who may be new to the area or dubious about the program. Shortly after these letters are mailed, the parents call the school to arrange for appointments at a convenient time.

Each session is held during two successive weekday afternoons from 1:15 to 4:00. School is closed on these afternoons. Each afternoon is broken up into eleven fifteen-minute periods, and each parent is asked to limit his or her time to that period. On this basis a single teacher can hold a total of twenty-two conferences each session. Since the average class enrolment is about thirty, not all parents can confer at the specified times. Some arrange for conferences after school at a later date, and still others confer by telephone. Many of the teachers relinquish part of their lunch hour on occasion to speak with a parent who cannot come at any other time.

Experience shows that more time will have to be allotted to the conferences. Another suggested change is the provision of several breaks for the teacher; a continuous stretch of eleven conferences is too long. During the proposed breaks, the teacher could get a short rest and record significant data while they are fresh in his mind. Other minor changes in the program are inevitable, and these will be instituted as the express need is recognized by parents and teachers.

The key to the generally favorable acceptance of our parent-teacher conferences is the continuing program of public relations maintained through bulletins to parents, newspaper articles, circulation of current literature on the subject, and organization of discussion groups. But the most important factor is the spreading of the good news by the many satisfied parents.

HARLAN BEEM

WHO'S WHO FOR SEPTEMBER

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by HARLAN BEEM, assistant director of the Midwest Administration Center, located at the University of Chicago. WALTER E. GAUERKE, associate professor of education at Emory University, gives a record of the litigation stemming from the challenge in the higher courts of the constitutionality of laws which provide for, and practices which involve, segregation of races in the public schools. GEORGE W. EBEL and NORMAN K. HAMILTON discuss one city's effective program of supervision to help the rapidly changing teacher personnel. Dr. Ebel was until recently deputy superintendent of schools at Houston, Texas, and was formerly assistant superintendent in charge of curriculum and instruction of the Portland, Oregon, public schools. Norman K. Hamilton is now acting assistant superintendent in charge of curriculum and instruction of the Portland public schools, and at the time of the inauguration of the consultant program was director of elementary instruction. GEORGE C. KYTE, professor of education at the University of California at Berkeley, and VIRGINIA M. NEEL, a graduate student at the same institution, present a list of 501 words to be used as a

core vocabulary in the teaching of spelling, together with data on the frequency of occurrence of these words in both children's and adults' written work. DAN T. DAWSON, assistant professor of education at Stanford University, proposes a new hypothesis—complexity—to explain children's apprehension of number as a group. A list of selected references on elementary-school instruction is presented by WALTER J. MOORE, assistant professor of education at the University of Illinois, and KENNETH D. NORBERG, associate professor of education and co-ordinator of audio-visual services at Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California.

Reviewers of books STANLEY J. HEYWOOD, research assistant for the Midwest Administration Center located at the University of Chicago. J. THOMAS HASTINGS, University Examiner, director of the unit on evaluation, and associate professor of education at the University of Illinois. HOWARD R. JONES, professor of educational administration at the University of Michigan. GEORGE W. HOHL, director of elementary education in the Des Moines public schools. ROBERT AITKEN MASON, director of instrumental music in the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago.

THE COURTS AND SEGREGATION OF RACES IN THE SCHOOLS

WARREN E. GAUERKE

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THE SOUTH has been restless for quite some time about the direction of the decisions of the courts of the land, and especially the decisions of the United States Supreme Court, in reference to cases involving the segregation of Negroes and whites in the public schools. The reason why the eyes of the South and the nation are on the highest court of the land is simple: the United States Supreme Court has, at least for the time being, supplanted the Congress as the focal point of the South's struggle against a cracking of its racial traditions.

In October, 1953, the Supreme Court in Washington will reopen hearings on one of the sharpest social issues of the day—segregation of races in the public schools. Five cases had been lumped together into one attack on the pattern of racial segregation that has grown up, especially in the South.¹ By agreeing to hear arguments on all cases at the same time, the court had indicated that it intended to pass directly on the proposition that segregation per se is discriminatory. Governors of two southern states have declared that white and colored children will not be mixed in the schools and

that complete abandonment of the public school system, in the event of "ill winds" from Washington, would be preferable to abandonment of segregation.

The cases involving the legality of segregation in schools suggest that there are several aspects to the larger problem of segregation. A most perplexing aspect is the constitutionality of all segregation laws. Other aspects of the problem include the apparent change in the attitude of the courts, primarily noticeable in those cases involving segregation in institutions of higher education; the legal definition of a colored person; the establishment of separate schools for children other than Negroes; and the legality of statutes requiring that schools for the white race be supported by taxes paid

¹ Three of the cases—those from South Carolina, Virginia, and Kansas—were heard by three-judge federal courts, which held such schools constitutional. The fourth case comes from the District of Columbia. The fifth—from Delaware—is unique in that the state Supreme Court held that "equal-protection" clause of the Fourteenth Amendment required the admission of Negroes to schools previously attended only by whites despite a state constitutional provision requiring segregated public schools.

by whites and that schools for Negroes be supported by taxes paid by Negroes.

SCOPE OF THE ARTICLE

Because seventeen states still maintain separate schools to implement the purpose and intent of the Civil War amendments, and since, under the Fourteenth Amendment particularly, the constitutionality of statutes providing segregation has been frequently questioned, the main concern here is a record of the litigation stemming from the challenge in the courts of the constitutionality of segregation laws. This choice was dictated by a study of court decisions involving segregation which reveals that at least two main aspects of the problem can be identified: (1) the legality of statutes making racial segregation in public schools mandatory or permissive and (2) the right of a school board to establish separate schools for children other than white in the absence of constitutional or statutory authority to do so.

Included in this paper is a discussion of the legal aspects involved in the problem of segregation of races in public schools, with only slight attention to recent court decisions relating to higher education. This account considers the thinking of only the highest courts. Some trends in thinking of the courts, as demonstrated by these decisions, will be noted, and some implications will be suggested. The attempt is made to show not only how courts have ruled but why they have ruled as

they have—the reasoning back of decisions.

LEGAL PRESCRIPTIONS REGARDING SEGREGATION

Regardless of residence and similar qualifications for admission to the public schools, there are further restrictions in some states. In seventeen states constitutional and/or statutory provisions prohibit the attendance of white and Negro children at the same schools. In some of these states the teaching of Negro pupils by white teachers or the teaching of white pupils by Negro teachers is forbidden. In four other states, the practice of having a teacher of one race teaching children of another race is legal if local districts want it.

With the ratification of the Fourteenth Amendment to the federal Constitution in 1868, the problem of segregation of the races became significant. Acute interest was shown after passage of this amendment because the need for education of Negroes became evident as the one way to prepare them for citizenship duties. This need was met generally by adopting the policy of creating separate schools. Because some persons feel that state provisions for separate schools are in violation of the law of the land, cases come to the courts.

DECISIONS OF FEDERAL COURTS

Even before the passage of the Fourteenth Amendment, higher courts² of

² Some of the references made in this paper to court decisions are taken from Fred Edwin

several states had already ruled on the constitutionality of enactments by legislatures that provided for segregation of races in the public schools.³ These cases were not always particularly decisive for later action because the passage of the amendment changed the existing situation. A number of cases almost immediately followed the incorporation of the measure into the Constitution. The lapse of some eighty years has not lessened concern over the matter in the courts.⁴

The decisions rendered shortly after the adoption of the Fourteenth Amendment were largely of a similar pattern. The courts took their cue from the United States Supreme Court's decision in the well-known *Slaughter House* cases.⁵ The question of the constitutionality of laws providing separate schools for colored children does not arise, stated this case, under the clause of the amendment which prohibits states from making and enforcing "any law which

shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States," since the court declared that this provision refers only to the privileges which derive from being a citizen of the United States.⁶ The court refused during Grant's administration to interfere in matters of social legislation of the states on the grounds that the power to pass such legislation was inherent in the states and did not come within the purview of the United States. Surely education had always been recognized as a state function. If the rights of white men were not to be affected and if the old concept of those rights as existing in the states was not to be altered, then it followed that the Negro, if he was to be educated, must be educated separately from whites.

One of the first, if not the first, case in which the United States Supreme Court ruled on the constitutionality of segregation was that of *Hall v. DeCuir*.⁷ In this case the court held that a carrier could not be bound by a state's laws governing intrastate commerce where these state laws interfered with the federal control of interstate commerce. Within a decade of the *Slaughter House* and the *Hall* cases, a federal district court in Ohio clearly pointed out that the statute of

Brooks, "The Legal Status of the Pupil in the American Public Schools: A Study of Common-Law Principles." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Chicago, 1948.

³ *Draper v. Cambridge*, 20 Ind. 268 (1863); *Lewis v. Henley*, 2 Ind. 332 (1850); *Clark v. Board of Directors*, 24 Iowa 266 (1868); *Roberts v. City of Boston*, 5 Cush. 198 (Mass.) (1849); *State v. City of Cincinnati*, 19 Ohio 178 (1850); *Van Camp v. Board of Education*, 9 Ohio St. 407 (1859); *Ammons v. School District*, 7 R.I. 596 (1864).

⁴ *Briggs v. Elliott*, 98 Fed. Supp. 529 (1951); *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*, 98 Fed. Supp. 797 (1951).

⁵ *Slaughter House Cases*, 16 Wall. 36 (U.S.) (1873).

⁶ It was not the purpose of this amendment to bring "the entire domain of civil rights heretofore belonging exclusively to the states" within the authority of Congress or the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. To hold otherwise, it was reasoned, would make this court "a perpetual censor upon all legislation of the states on the civil rights of their own citizens."

⁷ *Hall v. DeCuir*, 95 U.S. 485 (1877).

Ohio providing for separate schools was not in conflict with the Fourteenth Amendment.⁸

The next important case in a federal court to act as a precedent for later courts in their rulings concerning segregation is the so-called Plessy case,⁹ decided about twenty years after the Hall case. At the time the action was begun, the Louisiana statute had changed from what it had been at the time when the Hall case had been decided.¹⁰ The decision on the Plessy case has frequently been cited as a definite ruling on the constitutionality of segregation in public schools. Just as frequently, students of the law have noted that the constitutionality of segregation in the public schools was not the question before the court for decision and that the court mentioned the matter merely by way of *dicta*. The court held the statute of Louisiana calling for separate treatment for Negroes constitutional. It said:

Laws permitting, and even requiring . . . separation [of races] in places where they

⁸ *United States v. Buntin*, 10 Fed. 730 (1882).

⁹ *Plessy v. Ferguson*, 163 U.S. 537, 16 S. Ct. 1138 (1896).

¹⁰ It now required that railroad companies carrying passengers within the state provide separate but equal accommodations for white and Negro passengers. Plessy, a Negro, bought a first-class passage between New Orleans and Covington, Louisiana, on the East Louisiana Railroad. He took a seat in a coach reserved for white passengers and, when the conductor attempted to remove him to a coach for Negroes, he resisted and was arrested. His defense was based upon the contention that the statute providing for segregation was unconstitutional.

are liable to be brought into contact do not necessarily imply the inferiority of either race to the other . . .

The case is important for several reasons. First, it adhered to the policy laid down in the Slaughter House cases, whereby the Supreme Court said it would maintain a "hands-off," or noninterference, attitude relative to social legislation passed by the states. Second, the Plessy case is the first one decided by the Supreme Court in which the constitutionality of statutes providing for segregation was mentioned. In the third place, the case is important today because of the criterion of reasonableness which the court applied to the state statute in exercise of police power. The case foreshadowed the acceptance by the court of the "customs of the people" principle in place of the earlier concept of the "convenience of the company." Separate treatment for Negroes was constitutional so long as they received equal treatment. The decision became known as the famous "separate but equal" doctrine and permitted states to have segregation laws.

Other important cases involving the constitutionality of statutes providing for the separate but equal accommodations of the white and Negro races followed the Plessy case. Because of Justice Harlan's dissenting opinion in the latter case,¹¹ a case that came to

¹¹ The decision of the court was not unanimous. The reasoning of Justice Harlan must be considered. He states: "It is, therefore, to be regretted that this high tribunal, the final expositor of the fundamental law of the land, has reached the conclusion that it is competent for

the high court from Georgia in 1899 is particularly interesting.¹² It was contended that a decision of the Supreme Court of Georgia was in violation of the Fourteenth Amendment. Judge Harlan wrote the majority opinion when the Supreme Court said:

... the education of the people in schools maintained by state taxation is a matter belonging to the respective states, and any interference on the part of federal authority with the management of such schools cannot be justified except in the case of a clear and unmistakable disregard of rights secured by the supreme law of the land. . . .

In another case a federal court saw no need to re-think the question and pronounced the practice of segregation in public schools constitutional.¹³ Two other cases involved the legality of separate treatment on the railroads.¹⁴

It was not until the Coolidge administration that the United States Supreme Court gave its first actual ruling on the constitutionality of statutes

a state to regulate the enjoyment by citizens of their civil rights solely upon the basis of race. . . ."

¹² *Cumming v. Richmond County*, 175 U.S. 528 (1899). As a result of the decision on this case, it was reasoned that "the education of the people in the public schools maintained by state taxation is a matter belonging to the respective states, and any interference on the part of federal authority with the management of such schools cannot be justified except in the case of a clear and unmistakable disregard of rights secured by the supreme law of the land."

¹³ *Wong Him v. Callahan*, 119 Fed. 381 (1902).

¹⁴ *Chiles v. Chesapeake and Ohio Railway Company*, 218 U.S. 71 (1910), *McCabe v. Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railway Company*, 235 U.S. 151 (1914).

making racial segregation mandatory or permissive. It gave judicial sanction to the policy.¹⁵ In these cases the court followed the Plessy case as a precedent. Several present-day cases raising the issue of segregation in public schools have come into the federal courts.¹⁶ From the decisions, the influence of the Supreme Court on the policy and practice of segregation of the two races in public schools is clearly discernible.

DECISIONS OF STATE COURTS

State supreme courts were not slow to see the application of the decision in the Slaughter House cases to the question of the constitutionality of statutes requiring or permitting segregation in public schools. In the year after the decision, courts of both California and Kentucky rendered decisions declaring such statutes constitu-

¹⁵ *Gong Lum v. Rice*, 275 U.S. 78, 48 S. Ct. 91 (1927). The United States Supreme Court accepted the reasoning of higher state courts and disposed of the matter of segregation as follows: "The question here is whether a Chinese citizen of the United States is denied equal protection of the laws when he is classed among the colored races and furnished facilities for education equal to that offered to all, whether white, brown, yellow, or black. Were this a new question, it would call for very full argument and consideration, but we think that it is the same question which has been many times decided to be within the constitutional power of the state legislature to settle without intervention of the federal courts under the federal Constitution."

¹⁶ *Carr v. Corning*, 182 Fed. (2d) 14 (1950); *Briggs v. Elliott*, 98 Fed. Supp. 529 (1951); *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*, 98 Fed. Supp. 797 (1951).

tional.¹⁷ Other court decisions have held such statutes not to be in violation of the federal Constitution.¹⁸

In giving its opinion on the legality of separate schools for Negroes and whites, the Supreme Court of Missouri stated that the practice deprived neither race of any rights.¹⁹ However, under a California statute (similar to that of Ohio) providing for separate schools, the court held that colored pupils must be admitted to the school provided for white pupils²⁰ if such separate schools had not been established.

SEGREGATION WITHOUT STATUTORY AUTHORITY

Roberts v. City of Boston, decided in 1850 and one of the first cases involv-

¹⁷ *Ward v. Flood*, 48 Caly. 36 (1874); *Marshall v. Donovan*, 10 Bush. 681 (Ky.) (1874). The California court said in part: "The . . . Fourteenth Amendment . . . did not create any new or substantive legal right, or add to or enlarge the general classification of rights of persons or things existing in any state under the laws thereof. . . ." In its decision the Kentucky court said: "The primary object of the amendment was to elevate the Negro to a political status he had not heretofore occupied, but it was not intended to affect to any extent the existing status of the white race."

¹⁸ *Bertonneau v. Directors*, 3 Woods 177 (1878); *Ward v. Flood*, 48 Calif. 36 (1874); *Corry v. Carter*, 48 Ind. 327 (1874); *State v. McCann*, 21 Ohio St. 198 (1871); *Williams v. Board of Education*, 79 Kan. 202, 99 Pac. 216 (1908); *King v. Gallagher*, 93 N.Y. 428 (1883); *Lehew v. Brummell*, 103 Mo. 546, 15 S.W. 765 (1891); *Piper v. Big Pine School District*, 193 Calif. 664, 226 Pac. 926 (1924).

¹⁹ *Lehew v. Brummell*, 103 Mo. 546, 15 S.W. 765 (1891).

ing segregation, raised the question whether a Massachusetts school board had the right, in the absence of statute, to provide separate schools for Negro pupils.²¹ In spite of the generally accepted rule that a school board does not have the implied authority to establish separate schools for each race, the opposite was held in the *Roberts* case. Thirty-six years later an Arkansas court appears to have taken the same position as the Massachusetts court.²²

Notwithstanding these cases, the weight of judicial opinion is that, when there are no statutes or constitutional provisions either permitting or prohibiting segregation, a local school board cannot enforce segregation.²³ The opinion is that school boards may not classify pupils on the basis of color and provide separate schools for each class.²⁴ The courts have declared repeatedly that boards have no implied power to provide separate schools,²⁵ that boards in cities other

²⁰ *Ward v. Flood*, 48 Calif. 36 (1874).

²¹ *Roberts v. City of Boston*, 5 Cush. 198 (Mass.) (1849).

²² *Maddox v. Neal*, 45 Ark. 12 (1885).

²³ *Gonzales v. Sheely*, 96 Fed. Supp. 1004 (1951). For other citations, see Lee O. Garber, *Yearbook of School Law 1952*, p. 77. Philadelphia: Published by the Author (School of Education, University of Pennsylvania), 1952.

²⁴ *Clark v. Board of Directors*, 24 Iowa 266 (1868); *Crawford v. School District No. 7*, 66 Ore. 388, 137 Pac. 217 (1913); *Wysinger v. Crookshank*, 82 Calif. 588, 23 Pac. 54 (1890).

²⁵ *Board of Education v. Tinnon*, 26 Kan. 1 (1881); *Clark v. Board of Directors*, 24 Iowa 266

than those covered by specific statute have no authority to segregate,²⁶ that boards have no greater power than that conferred upon them by the statutes;²⁷ that boards cannot classify pupils on the basis of grade placement to circumvent the clear intent of the legislature;²⁸ and that school trustees exceed their discretionary power when they assign Negroes to "portables" and thus attempt to evade the law.²⁹

The law on this point is not conclusive. It seems that in some instances the wording of the statutes or the history of legislation in the particular state in question could be assumed as legislative intent that separate schools should be maintained. However, without exception, the courts have held

that the legislature, in the absence of constitutional restraint, has the right to pass statutes requiring or permitting boards of education to segregate pupils in public schools on the basis of race or color.

SEGREGATION FORBIDDEN BY STATUTE

In five states—Colorado, Idaho, New Jersey, Washington, and Wyoming—there are constitutional provisions forbidding racial segregation. The law is that boards of education have no discretion in the matter of admitting or refusing to admit colored pupils to the public schools when the state constitution or statutes specifically forbid the maintenance of separate schools for white and colored pupils.³⁰

The constitution of New Jersey forbids racial segregation. Until recently, however, all Negro children attending junior high school in Trenton, New Jersey, were sent to a central school for Negroes. White children attended the school nearest their residence. This practice was called discriminatory by the court,³¹ which required the board to permit colored children to enter the school nearest their residence.

³⁰ *Kaine v. Commonwealth*, 101 Pa. 490 (1882); *Pierce v. Union School District*, 46 N.J.L. 76 (1884); *People v. Board of Education of Detroit*, 18 Mich. 400 (1869); *Longress v. Board of Education* 101 Ill. 308, 40 Am. Rep. 196 (1881); *Thurman-Watts v. Board of Education*, 222 Pac. 123, 115 Kan. 328 (1924).

³¹ *Hedgepeth v. Board of Education of Trenton*, 35 A. (2d) 622 (N.J. 1944).

(1868), *People v. Board of Education*, 18 Mich. 400 (1869).

²⁶ *Board of Education v. Tinnon*, 26 Kan. 1 (1881); *Cartwright v. Board of Education*, 73 Kan. 32 (1906); *Rowles v. Board of Education*, 76 Kan. 361, 91 Pac. 88 (1907).

²⁷ "The school board has no greater power than conferred upon it by the statutes. Neither the superintendent of schools nor the board of education have authority to separate white and colored pupils unless that power is expressly given by the statutes."—*Thurman-Watts v. Board of Education*, 222 Pac. 123, 115 Kan. 328 (1924).

In Oregon the court decided that in the absence of statutory provisions for separate schools, the school board could not establish them. In this case the court reasoned that school boards have no powers except those expressly granted or necessarily implied. *Crawford v. School District No. 7*, 66 Ore. 388, 137 Pac. 217 (1913).

²⁸ *People v. Board of Education of Detroit*, 18 Mich. 400 (1869).

²⁹ *Chase v. Stephenson*, 71 Ill. 383 (1874).

CHANGING CONCEPTIONS REGARDING SEGREGATION

Although there appears to be no change in the attitude of the courts regarding the constitutionality of segregation laws, the attitude of the courts toward the problem appears to be undergoing some change.

The "traditions" concept.—The first change to be noted in decisions is the thinking of the Supreme Court in the Plessy case, where the criterion used was that of "established usages, customs, and traditions of the people." This yardstick was a far cry from the rule of "convenience of the carrier" accepted in the Hall case. Without a doubt, the Plessy decision profoundly affected the history of the United States for the next half-century. It set a pattern which was readily adopted by courts in segregation cases.

The nature of personal rights.—A second change worth noting in recent decisions concerns the emphasis by the United States Supreme Court upon the fact that the rights established by the Fourteenth Amendment are personal rights. The court says, in effect, that discrimination cannot be determined by averaging the facilities provided for each race and comparing these averages.³² This trend is noticeable in cases involving higher educa-

tion. Although outside the province of this paper, a few cases of such a nature will be considered briefly.

The first case of significance in higher education was decided by the Supreme Court in the late 1930's.³³ In 1950 the court declared that the "petitioner may claim his full constitutional right: legal education equivalent to that offered by the state to students of other races. . . ."³⁴ These cases have set a precedent which has been followed in other jurisdictions.³⁵

In the case of *Carr v. Corning*,³⁶ decided by a federal court in 1950, Judge Edgerton pointed out in a dissenting opinion that discrimination cannot be avoided in an atmosphere of segregation. In at least two other decisions, the dissenting opinions shed light on the apparent changed attitude of certain judges of the court. In the first case,³⁷ one judge decried the policy of the courts in looking upon the Plessy case as a precedent for holding segre-

³³ *Missouri v. Canada*, 305 U.S. 337 (1938).

³⁴ *Sweatt v. Painter*, 339 U.S. 629 (1950).

³⁵ *McKissick v. Carmichael*, 187 Fed. (2d) 949 (1951); *Wilson v. Board of Supervisors of Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College*, 92 Fed. Supp. 986 (1950).

³⁶ *Carr v. Corning*, 182 Fed. (2d) 14 (1950).

³⁷ *Briggs v. Elliott*, 98 Fed. Supp. 529 (1951). "The courts of this land have stricken down discrimination in higher education and have declared unequivocally that segregation is not equality. But these decisions have pruned away only the noxious fruits. Here in this case, we are asked to strike at the cause of infection and not merely at the symptoms of disease. . . . in the elementary schools . . . our future citizens learn their first lesson to respect the . . . individual. . . ."

³² *Mitchell v. United States*, 313 U.S. 80 (1941); *Shelly v. Kraemer*, 334 U.S. 1 (1948); *Corbin v. County School Board*, 177 Fed. (2d) 924 (1949); *Carter v. School Board*, 182 Fed. (2d) 531 (1950); *State v. Board of Education of City of St. Louis*, 233 S. W. (2d) 697 Mo. (1951).

gation in the public schools constitutional. In the *Brown* case³⁸ the court was of the opinion that the *Plessy* and *Lum* cases "have not been overruled and that they still presently are authority for the maintenance of a segregated school system in the lower grades."

While it appears from the number of dissenting opinions that some judges are changing their thinking slightly, the two decisions just considered seem to indicate that the attitude of the courts toward the total problem of segregation remains substantially the same.³⁹ While earlier courts did not conceive of rights as necessarily being personal in nature, recent courts have been clear and outspoken concerning the matter.

The principle of "notice."—There is evidence that courts are impatient toward administrative agencies which have been tardy in providing for equality. Whereas the courts in the past have given such agencies time to effect changes, the present tendency appears to demand that equal facilities be provided for one group at the same time they are provided for the

other group.⁴⁰ For example, in a recent case⁴¹ a federal court ordered a school district to provide equal educational opportunity for Negroes and required the board to file a report within six months showing that this had been done.

The concept of equality.—The most far-reaching of the trends is contained in the concept of what the courts deem to be equality under the "separate but equal" doctrine. Based on the theory that "equality of rights does not imply identity of rights," state constitutions and statutes providing for separate schools have, in the past, been held constitutional by federal courts.⁴²

Whereas the Supreme Court has stated from time to time that equality does not necessarily mean identity, it has come close in recent decisions (again relating to higher education) to defining equality in terms of identity. A 1950 decision is very much in line with the idea that equality approaches identity.⁴³ It appears that only a narrow line separates the two ideas in the thinking of the court.

Most present-day cases concerned with segregation in the public schools do not raise the question of constitutionality but appear rather to accept the "separate but equal" doctrine as

³⁸ *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*, 98 Fed. Supp. 797 (1951).

³⁹ *Briggs v. Elliott, loc. cit.*; *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, loc. cit.*

⁴⁰ *Sipuel v. Board of Regents*, 332 U.S. 631 (1948); *Johnson v. Board of Trustees of the University of Kentucky*, 83 Fed. Supp. 707 (1949); *Wilson v. Board of Supervisors of Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College*, 92 Fed. Supp. 986 (1950); *State v. Board of Education of City of St. Louis*, 233 S.W. (2d) 697 Mo. (1951).

⁴¹ *Briggs v. Elliott*, 98 Fed. Supp. 529 (1951).

⁴² *United States v. Buntin*, 10 Fed. 730 (1882); *Gong Lum v. Rice*, 275 U.S. 78, 48 S. Ct. 91 (1927); *Missouri, ex rel. Gaines v. Canada*, 305 U.S. 337 (1938); *Sipuel v. Board of Regents of University of Oklahoma*, 68 S. Ct. 229 (1948).

⁴³ *McLaurin v. Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education*, 339 U.S. 637 (1950).

valid. This is so despite the fact that few, if any, criteria of equality have, or for that matter can be, set down. The recent cases seem to have as a main purpose the attainment of more nearly equal facilities for Negroes.⁴⁴ One by-product of the segregation issue is the current effort to improve facilities for Negroes and so to meet the "separate but equal" doctrine of the courts.

SOME IMPLICATIONS OF COURT DECISIONS

A study of court decisions involving segregation reveals that at least two phases of the problem have come up for argument: the constitutionality of statutes making the practice in public schools mandatory or permissive, and the right of a school board to establish separate schools for children other than white in the absence of constitutional or statutory authority to do so. Will the United States Supreme Court give a definitive answer to both of these questions in the days ahead? Is the problem of segregation, as some

judges contend, essentially different at the higher and lower levels of education?

To what extent have the courts been chipping away at the established doctrine of "separate but equal" by changes in the criteria by which they judge "equality"? Will the new line of reasoning—that individual rights are personal in nature—overthrow in time the established concept? How outmoded is the notion that "equality does not imply identity of rights"?

An examination of the court decisions reveals that so far the courts follow the principle that separate schools for the white and colored races is constitutional provided that equal opportunities are offered each. Even so, one notes certain changes. (1) The courts now look into the facts of the case carefully and insist that there be substantial equality of opportunity. (2) They insist that equal opportunity be provided in the immediate future. (3) Equal opportunity is a personal matter in the sense that the plaintiff in each case is entitled to equal opportunity without delay. Cases now before the Supreme Court of the United States seek a more positive statement with respect to the constitutionality of segregation in the schools.

⁴⁴ *Carter v. School Board*, 182 Fed. (2d) 531 (1950); *Corbin v. County School Board*, 177 Fed. (2d) 924 (1949); *Butler v. Wilemon*, 86 Fed. Supp. 398 (1949); *Carter v. School Board*, 87 Fed. Supp. 745 (1949); *Pitts v. Board of Trustees*, 84 Fed. Supp. 975 (1949).

AN EFFECTIVE APPROACH TO SUPERVISION

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A FEW MONTHS ago an administrator in the Portland, Oregon, public schools answered a long-distance telephone call from a near-by community. Over the line came the voice of a superintendent who prides himself upon his educational leadership. Said he, "I understand you've developed a consultant program that really works. Never did I expect to find teachers and principals enthusiastic about supervisors. I'd like to know more about it."

It was a heart-warming experience to hear from a superintendent who, confronted with the many problems of expanding enrolments, school building costs, and teacher shortages, wanted to hear more about a supervisory program designed to maintain and develop a high quality of instruction. In the summer of 1951 it had been even more gratifying when the Portland Board of Education unanimously approved a proposal by Superintendent Paul A. Rehms for a consultant program to insure that instructional quality would keep pace with the expansion and improvement of building facilities.

The need for such a program was apparent. As in many other communities throughout the nation, the composition of Portland's teaching personnel was changing rapidly, partly because of turnover, partly because of the system's growth. For the past few years, more than 300 teachers had been elected annually as replacements or additions to the staff of about 2,100 teachers. Most of the new teachers were inexperienced elementary-school teachers. Some had prepared for secondary teaching and had been assigned to elementary classrooms after receiving only a six-weeks transition program. Only a little more than half the teachers had been in the system longer than five years.

GROWTH OF THE IDEA

The reasoning which led to the inauguration of the consultant program was simple and logical. It ran something like this:

We have many new teachers who need assistance in achieving greater instructional competence. Our preschool induction program, initiated in 1948, is functioning well in helping new teachers find housing and

become acquainted with our city and in familiarizing them with our school system, our policies, and our instructional program. But the follow-up assistance in the classroom is not so effective as it should be. Some experienced teachers also feel the need for more help than principals can provide.

Our staff of eleven supervisors, chiefly subject specialists working from the kindergarten through Grade XII, is able but too small, a ratio of one supervisor to two hundred teachers. Furthermore, our supervisors have many quasi-administrative responsibilities, such as developing courses of study, serving on local and state curriculum committees, planning in-service workshops, assisting in the choice of textbooks and other materials, developing supply and equipment lists, advising on personnel selections, helping in planning new buildings, and interpreting our program to the public. We need to augment our supervisory staff with a group of consultants who will work almost exclusively helping teachers in their classrooms become better teachers.

Why not select outstanding experienced classroom teachers for this assignment? Let's ask them to serve as consultants for a year or, at most, two years.

This program will insure a continuous flow of exceptional teachers to the central staff and a return to classrooms of teachers with a broader view, a better, system-wide understanding of instructional problems. Such a program will be flexible. The consultant staff can be reorganized each year in accordance with the system's most important current needs. Moreover, some of the consultants may desire eventually to become candidates for administrative or supervisory positions which may materialize. They will be better candidates because of their consultant experience.

In brief, this plan was the one adopted by the Portland Board of Education. Eleven outstanding teach-

ers were selected to work from the central office on a system-wide basis—one in the kindergarten; three in the primary grades; four in the intermediate and upper grades; and one in each of the special fields of art, music, and industrial arts. In addition to their general competence, one intermediate and upper-grade consultant was particularly well qualified in language arts and another in arithmetic. They were paid their teaching salaries plus three hundred dollars and a mileage allowance.

The position of general elementary supervisor was supplanted by a director of elementary instruction. He was assigned the co-ordination of all supervision in the elementary schools and was directly responsible for the consultant program.

SETTING UP THE CONSULTANT PROGRAM

A committee of supervisors and principals worked with the newly appointed director of elementary instruction to plan the consultant program. They established the principles under which consultants were to be selected and were to operate. The professional qualifications for a consultant were to include adequate training in his field, permanent status as a teacher in Portland, and evidence of outstanding classroom teaching.

All elementary-school principals and supervisors were invited to nominate teachers as consultants. These nominations were reviewed by the di-

rector of elementary instruction and by the assistant superintendent in charge of curriculum and instruction, whose recommendations for selection were sent to the personnel department. A special effort was to be made to select persons who were respected by their fellow-workers and who possessed natural qualities of leadership.

The principals appeared to appreciate the opportunity to share in planning the program and making nominations. Some, however, were understandably reluctant to weaken their staffs by nominating their strongest teachers. Two factors resulted in their wholehearted support. One was their realization of the value of this type of added supervisory service. The other was the assurance that, wherever feasible, consultants would return to the buildings from which they came, stronger because of their broader experience.

A two-day orientation program for consultants was held at the beginning of the school year. At this time the principles under which they would operate were discussed. The consultants developed an outline of specific functions and methods of operation. To insure a maximum amount of time in classrooms, they decided to go directly to the schools each day and to report to the central office only on Friday afternoons at 2:30. At these Friday meetings they exchanged information, made plans for the following week, and posted their programs. Early in the year it was planned that there

would be an evaluation of the consultant program by teachers and administrators and by the consultants themselves. This evaluation was to be carried on both as the program developed and at the end of the year.

THE OPERATION OF THE PROGRAM

As pointed out earlier, the consultant's work was not a desk job. In fact, no desks, secretaries, or telephones were provided. The headquarters was a conference room with tables and filing cabinets, which also served as the office of the director of elementary instruction. The director's secretary took their calls. According to plan, the consultants were in schools almost full time. During the first two weeks of the school session, they called on almost three hundred teachers—all the new teachers in the system. On these first visits the consultants became acquainted with teachers and let both teachers and principals know that they would return if needed. Many teachers asked for and received immediate help during these initial visits. Others were reluctant to request help.

A chief concern of the consultants had been that teachers would not request their help. Another was that they might be resented by experienced teachers. They set about to convince teachers that they were not visiting classrooms to inspect them or to make reports. These early concerns soon subsided. As news of their work traveled, the consultants received requests from both experienced and inexperienced teachers. Experienced teachers

wanted an opportunity to exchange ideas on methods and procedures, and they wanted suggestions for units and instructional materials. During one week the central office received calls for consultant service from thirty-two schools, more than half the elementary schools in the system. These calls were in addition to the regular visits already scheduled by consultants.

One of the strengths of the program was that the consultants were fresh from the classroom. Thus they could interpret the system's philosophy in practical terms; they knew materials intimately; they could talk to teachers on the basis of their own recent experience, since they worked chiefly at their own grade levels. A typical day might include:

1. Conferring with a small group of teachers before school in the morning.
2. Visiting classrooms according to schedule prearranged with teachers.
3. Lunching with a teacher for a conference.
4. Stopping at the instructional materials department to select some particular film or book to use in a demonstration.
5. Visiting another classroom to demonstrate a teaching technique or to help a teacher rearrange the furniture and work centers.
6. Meeting a school staff or committee after school.
7. Answering a teacher's inquiry by telephone in the evening.

Sometimes it was more profitable to spend an entire day or even two or three days helping one teacher organize his class, make plans, and initiate a unit, rather than to devote an equivalent amount of time in short visits.

As the year progressed, the consultants became enthusiastic about the many opportunities to help improve instructional programs throughout the district. At the Friday afternoon meetings they discussed the problems facing teachers. Soon they were giving limited service, along with supervisors, teachers, and principals, as chairmen of curriculum committees, as members of instructional material committees, as advisers to the school radio station, and as speakers for parent and teacher groups. The school system continued to adhere rigidly to the policy, however, that consultants were not to participate in these extra activities to an extent that would interfere with their classroom visiting schedules. Consultants judged for themselves when they had assumed enough extra duties. They were constantly aware that their principal responsibility was helping teachers on the job.

Although consultants made it a practice to visit only teachers who wished to have assistance, sometimes they were called in by principals and asked to visit particular rooms in a building. Such visits, where teachers had not specifically requested help, called for the utmost tact and understanding. Usually when the teachers became convinced that the consultants made no reports of any kind, when they found that the consultants would work along with them, they were favorably impressed. Some of this group of teachers became staunch supporters of the program.

EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAM

At the end of the school year the director of elementary instruction and the consultants devised a questionnaire on which principals and teachers were to evaluate the consultant program. Questionnaires were sent to building principals with the request that they be completed by the principal and by teachers who had had contact with the program. Of 500 questionnaires sent out, 455 were returned, 395 by teachers and 60 by principals. Almost as many experienced as beginning teachers returned questionnaires. All were unsigned.

In general, the opinions of first-year, second-year, and experienced teachers were much the same. Of the 395 teachers responding to the questionnaire, 391 said that their contacts with the consultants were both pleasant and helpful. Only four said that they were not. Principals unanimously indorsed the program.

Teachers gave the following reasons for liking the consultant program:

1. Consultants are willing to take classes when requested.
2. Consultants arrange conferences at a time convenient to the teachers.
3. Consultants come on invitation and give advance notice of their visits.
4. Consultants often bring materials.
5. Consultants make no reports on teachers.

In their suggestions for improvement, teachers and principals recommended that more consultants be added to the program; consultants arranged to stay longer periods of time with each teacher; more assistance in

art and music be provided; consultants bring more materials and teaching aids.

After studying the questionnaires returned by teachers and principals, the consultants felt encouraged by the favorable responses and practical suggestions for improvement. They proposed that during the second year of the program:

1. Consultants be available during the pre-school induction period to meet with new teachers in their areas of work.
2. Consultants continue making brief visits to all new teachers during the first two weeks of school.
3. If, after a visit by a consultant, the principal requests a conference to obtain suggestions for follow-up assistance in the building, the teacher be asked to participate whenever possible.
4. Time be arranged, when feasible, for conferences between consultants and teachers when children are not present.
5. Occasionally, if needed, a consultant continue to spend one to three consecutive days full time with one teacher.
6. Administrators continue to explain the status, functions, and purpose of the consultant program.
7. Consultants work only in situations where teachers wish help, desire to participate, and are willing to follow through to improve instruction.

The spokesman for the consultants wrote:

We appreciate the broadening experience that being a consultant has offered us and the many opportunities we have had to gain a better understanding of the Portland public schools. We have learned to know many teachers throughout the school system and have made many friends. I am sure that we shall return to our teaching positions at the

end of our consultant experience as better teachers.

The success of the consultant program probably can be attributed to the careful planning of the program by elementary-school principals and central staff; the leadership of principals in indorsing and interpreting the program; the high professional quality of the consultants; and the support afforded the program by the Board of Education, the superintendent, and

the central staff of administrators and supervisors.

With an enlarged consultant staff, Portland is now completing its second year of the consultant program. Our experience leads us to believe that this type of supervision is a step in the right direction. Teachers and principals seem to agree that it is a most effective way to improve the curriculum—by helping teachers become more competent in their classrooms.

A CORE VOCABULARY OF SPELLING WORDS

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WHEN AYRES completed his pioneering research on spelling vocabularies,¹ he proved that the number of words which an adult needs to be able to spell constitutes a very small portion of the words in the English language. Subsequent investigations have further established the fact that a small number of words carries a large fraction of the load in writing done by either adults or children. For example, the 100 words occurring most commonly in Rinsland's list of elementary-school children's writing vocabularies² constitute over 60 per cent of the running words; the 500 most common words, 82 per cent; the 1,000 most common words, 89 per cent; and the 2,000 most common words, 95 per cent.³

The many research studies also indicate that, when the commonly used words are divided into groups of 100

¹ Leonard P. Ayres, *The Spelling Vocabularies of Personal and Business Letters*. New York: Division of Education, Russell Sage Foundation, 1913.

² Henry D. Rinsland, *A Basic Vocabulary of Elementary School Children*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1945.

³ James A. Fitzgerald, *A Basic Life Spelling Vocabulary*, p. 45. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1951.

and arranged in descending order of frequency of occurrence, the differences between the per cent of total running words for successive groups decrease markedly. An illustration of the decreasing differences has been developed from the data presented by Rinsland regarding the 1,000 most common words in the writing vocabularies of eighth-grade children.⁴ The differences between the successive groups of 100 words are 9 per cent, 5 per cent, 3 per cent, 3 per cent, 2 per cent, 1 per cent, 2 per cent, 1 per cent, and 1 per cent, in that order. Therefore the mastery of each additional 100 words after the first 100 yields decreasing increments of spelling facility for the additional amounts of learning. This conclusion points to the value of a basic list of words, such as has been advocated by many writers.

NATURE AND USE OF A CORE VOCABULARY

Derivation of a core vocabulary in spelling was undertaken by the writers in order to provide the minimal essentials for various instructional programs. For example, a core list of words mastered by children who are

⁴ Henry D. Rinsland, *op. cit.*, p. 12.

mentally retarded or by pupils who have considerable difficulty in learning to spell should assure better writing performances by children with these handicaps than will occur when they struggle to master four thousand words. The core vocabulary can be used also to teach illiterates to write intelligibly. Similar use can be made of such a list in teaching the writing of English to foreigners knowing only some other language. Stress on the core words rather than the much longer list ordinarily used in instruction should lead to the development of a spelling consciousness, skill in spelling correctly, and, consequently, facility in written expression.

The construction of the core vocabulary has been made possible by the use of the findings in two monumental studies. A list of basic words used by adults has been selected from the study by Horn.⁵ A similarly basic list of words which elementary-school children use in writing has been selected from the Rinsland list. In order to derive a combined list of core words, the writers applied the following three general criteria:

1. A functional core vocabulary should include the words which occur most commonly both in adults' and in children's writing.

2. A functional core vocabulary should include the words which most commonly occur in adults' writing, although these

⁵ Ernest Horn, *A Basic Writing Vocabulary*. University of Iowa Monographs in Education, First Series, No. 4. Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa, 1926.

words occur less commonly in children's writing.

3. A functional core vocabulary should include the words which most commonly occur in children's writing although these words occur less commonly in adults' writing.

Mastery of the resulting list of words should assure spelling proficiency in the case of a large per cent of the words written by adults and by children at various grade levels. Since the core list would include so many words which children have occasion to write frequently, such words should contribute to the development of spelling consciousness. The core vocabulary should make possible the ready learning of many additional simple words derived from words in the list. This latter conclusion is strengthened by the various derivative word forms which appear in the lists compiled by the investigators of adults' and of children's vocabularies.

BASES FOR SELECTION OF WORDS

The core vocabulary derived by the writers consists of a basic list of 501 words, which are presented in Table 1. The list was obtained by applying the three criteria expanded to six bases for the selection of the words. Each basis is presented below in the discussion of the type and number of words determined accordingly.

Type I.—Words included under Type I are those words which appear in identical form among the 500 most commonly used words (1a) appearing in the lists by Horn and by Rinsland. The characteristic frequencies of oc-

currence of the words are exemplified by the data in Table 2 regarding twelve words included from the list of Type I words.

And is one of the most commonly used words in the writing of both adults and children. It is also very high in the list of the 100 most commonly used words (1a1) in every elementary-school grade.

After is also in the first 500 words of adults' writing and in the first 100 in children's writing. However, it is among the second 100 words (1a2) in Grades I through III.

Life is also in the first 500 words most common in adults' writing, but it is in the fifth 100 words (1a5) of children's writing. In the elementary-school grades, the word ranges from the third 100 words (1a3) in Grades VII and VIII to the second half of the second 1,000 words (2b) in Grade I.

Type II.—Additional words, under Type II, occur among the first 300 words of children's writing (see Table 1). Being so very common in children's written materials, the words are included in the core list irrespective of their frequency in adults' writing. Five representative words of this type are included in Table 2.

Dog, cat, doll, and baby are in the second 100 words (1a2), and *fish* is in the third 100 words (1a3), of children's writing. The frequencies of occurrence in the various elementary-school grades indicate the characteristic differences of the distributions of Type II words. *Baby* is in the second 500 words (1b) of adults' writing; *dog* is in

the first half of the second 1,000 words (2a); and *doll* is in the second half of the fifth 1,000 words (5b).

Type III.—Words in the fourth 100 words (1a4) of children's writing and in the second 500 (1b) of adults' writing are in Type III (see Table 1).

Blue, street, and family in Table 2 are characteristic words in this type. They illustrate variations in frequency of occurrence and the consequent patterns of distributions in the elementary-school grades.

Type IV.—Type IV includes words in the first 500 of adults' writing and in the second 500 of children's writing but also among the first 500 words in at least one of the elementary-school grades (see Table 1).

Examples of this type included in Table 2 are *even, during, given, and job*. *Real* is among the fourth 100 words (1a4) of the list for Grade I, while *during* is among the third 100 words in Grade VIII. *Job* is included in the type because it is in the fourth 100 words (1a4) in Grade VIII.

Type V.—Among the first 500 words of adults' writing and among the second 500 words in at least one elementary-grade list, but irrespective of frequency of occurrence in the total for all grades, are the words in Type V.

Present, though, company, and whether in Table 2 illustrate characteristic distributions of occurrence in the elementary-school grades. *Present* is among the second 500 words (1b1, 1b2, and 1b4) in all grades. *Whether* has this characteristic frequency (1b4) in Grades VI and VIII only.

TABLE 1

A CORE VOCABULARY OF 501 SPELLING WORDS

Type I. 315 Words Occurring in Identical Form among 500 Most Commonly Used Words
in Adults' and in Children's Writing

a	call	from	kind	now	since	two
about	called	full	knew	of	six	under
after	came	gave	know	off	small	until
afternoon	can	get	large	old	so	up
again	can't	getting	last	on	some	upon
ago	car	girl	later	once	something	us
all	care	give	left	one	soon	use
almost	city	glad	let	only	sorry	used
along	class	go	letter	open	stay	very
also	close	going	life	or	still	want
always	cold	gone	like	other	such	wanted
am	come	good	little	our	summer	war
an	coming	got	long	out	Sunday	was
and	could	great	look	over	sure	way
another	country	guess	looking	paper	take	we
answer	cut	had	lot	part	tell	week
any	day	half	love	party	ten	weeks
anything	days	hand	made	people	than	well
are	dear	happy	make	place	thank	went
around	did	hard	making	play	that	were
as	didn't	has	man	please	the	what
ask	different	have	many	pretty	their	when
asked	dinner	having	may	put	them	where
at	do	he	me	quite	then	which
away	does	hear	men	read	there	while
back	doing	heard	might	ready	these	who
bad	done	help	money	received	they	why
be	don't	her	more	rest	thing	will
because	down	here	morning	right	things	winter
bed	each	high	most	room	think	wish
been	early	him	mother	run	this	with
before	end	his	Mr.	said	those	work
being	enough	home	Mrs.	same	thought	world
best	ever	hope	much	Saturday	three	would
better	every	house	must	saw	through	write
big	far	how	my	say	time	writing
book	few	I	name	school	to	wrote
books	find	if	near	second	today	year
both	fine	in	never	see	together	years
box	first	into	new	send	told	yes
boy	five	is	next	sent	too	yesterday
bring	for	it	nice	set	took	yet
but	found	its	night	she	town	you
buy	four	just	no	should	truly	your
by	friend	keep	not	show	try	yours

Type II. 55 Words Occurring among the 300 Most Frequently Used Words in Children's Writing

aunt	candy	door	girls	milk	ride	teacher
baby	cat	eat	grade	Miss	Santa Claus	toys
ball	children	father	ground	o'clock	side	train
beautiful	Christmas	feet	head	oh	sister	tree
black	comes	fire	live	played	sometimes	trees
boys	daddy	fish	lived	playing	snow	water
brother	dog	food	looked	ran	started	white
brought	doll	fun	lots	red	story	

TABLE 1—*Continued*

Type III. 21 Words Occurring in Fourth 100 in Children's Writing and in Second 500 of Adults' Writing

blue couldn't decided	dress eyes family	farm friends game	goes hair land	light miss picture	seen spring street	store times walk
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Type IV. 38 Words Occurring in First 500 of Adults' Writing and in Second 500 of Children's Writing and Also in First 500 in One Elementary-School Grade

able address against between bill card	course during even evening everything Friday	given job leave letters line mail	Monday month myself need nothing own	real remember several shall sincerely state	suppose surely taken talk	tomorrow weather without young
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Type V. 27 Words Occurring in First 500 of Adults' Writing and in Second 500 in at Least One Elementary-School Grade

above amount believe business	company cannot expect feel	however interest matter number	office order past pay	possible present rather really	receive returned seems sending	though written whether
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Type VI. 45 Words Occurring in First 330 in Adults' Writing but Not in First 1,000 in Any Elementary-School Grade

account advise appreciate attention balance case certainly	<i>check</i> copy covering credit date department desire	<i>enclosed</i> enclosing fact favor forward further future	herewith information kindly material necessary No. note	pleased pleasure price receipt regard regarding reply	return satisfactory service shipment sir stock thanking	therefore trust understand
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Type VI.—Type VI includes words which are among the first 330 words in adults' writing and not included in the other five types (see Table 1). Because they are so common in adult writing, though beyond the first 1,000 words in frequency in any elementary grade, they are included in the core vocabulary.

The last six words in Table 2 illustrate the characteristics of frequency of occurrence. *Case*, *note*, and *sir* illus-

trate distributions in all eight grades. *Fact*, *trust*, and *credit* illustrate words which do not appear in all grades.

Types I-III include the words which are very common in children's writing. Only a small portion of them, however, do not occur commonly in adults' writing. Type IV words have a high frequency of occurrence in adults' writing and in at least one elementary-school grade, but all the words are among the second 500 words of chil-

dren's writing. Types V and VI include the words which are very common in adults' writing and generally not common in children's writing.

Most of these words, especially those in Type VI, must be included in the core vocabulary because they are primarily words in common adult usage.

TABLE 2

EXAMPLES OF TYPES OF WORDS INCLUDED IN THE LISTS

WORD	TYPE	OCCURRENCE BY GRADE AND BY TOTAL IN RINSLAND LIST*										OCCURRENCE IN HORN LIST	
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	Total	Number	Sym- bol	Number
and.....	I	1a1*	1a1	1a1	1a1	1a1	1a1	1a1	1a1	1a1	203,146	1a	519,583
after.....	I	1a2	1a2	1a2	1a1	1a1	1a1	1a1	1a1	1a1	12,110	1a	23,016
back.....	I	1a2	1a2	1a1	1a1	1a2	1a2	1a1	1a1	1a1	10,083	1a	13,089
big.....	I	1a1	1a1	1a2	1a2	1a2	1a2	1a2	1a2	1a2	7,765	1a	9,364
bed.....	I	1a2	1a2	1a2	1a2	1a2	1a3	1a2	1a3	1a2	4,816	1a	7,075
another....	I	1a3	1a4	1a3	1a3	1a3	1a2	1a2	1a3	1a3	3,664	1a	9,276
along.....	I	1a5	1a4	1a3	1a3	1a2	1a3	1a2	1a3	1a3	3,862	1a	5,544
always....	I	1a5	1a4	1a3	1a3	1a3	1a3	1a3	1a2	1a3	3,295	1a	10,874
cut.....	I	1a3	1a5	1a4	1a4	1a4	1a2	1a5	1a5	1a4	2,291	1a	3,987
ago.....	I	2a	1a5	1a5	1a5	1a3	1a3	1a5	1a4	1a4	1,869	1a	9,781
life.....	I	2b	1b4	2a	1b4	1a5	1b5	1a3	1a3	1a5	1,562	1a	6,421
ask.....	I	1b1	1b1	1b2	1a5	1a4	1a5	1a5	1a5	1a5	1,459	1a	9,707
dog.....	II	1a1	1a1	1a1	1a1	1a2	1a3	1a2	1a3	1a2	9,711	2a	737
cat.....	II	1a1	1a1	1a2	1a2	1a4	1a5	1a5	1b2	1a2	6,093	3b	251
doll.....	II	1a1	1a1	1a2	1a2	1a3	1b1	1b3	2a	1a2	4,524	5b	83
baby.....	II	1a1	1a2	1a1	1a2	1a3	1a5	1a4	1b2	1a2	4,456	1b	1,455
fish.....	II	1a4	1a3	1a3	1a3	1a4	1a5	1a3	1a3	1a3	2,632	3a	381
blue.....	III	1a2	1a2	1a3	1a4	1b1	1b1	1b1	1b1	1a4	2,143	1b	2,006
street.....	III	1a5	1a3	1a4	1a4	1a4	1a4	1a4	1a5	1a4	2,064	1b	2,538
family....	III	1b4	2a	1b1	1a5	1a4	1b2	1a3	1a3	1a4	1,773	1b	2,822
even.....	IV	1b1	2a	1b4	1b1	1b1	1b1	1a4	1a4	1b	1,321	1a	7,866
during....	IV	3a	2a	2a	1b2	1b1	1b3	1a4	1a3	1b	1,253	1a	6,961
real.....	IV	1a4	1b3	1b4	1b1	1a5	1b1	1b1	1b1	1b	1,181	1a	4,625
given.....	IV	2a	1b5	2a	1b3	2a	1a4	1a4	1b	970	1a	7,399
job.....	IV	2a	2b	2a	2a	2a	1b4	1b4	1a4	1b	690	1a	3,504
present....	V	1b4	1b1	1b1	1b1	1b1	1b4	1b2	1b2	1b	1,019	1a	12,572
though....	V	1b2	4a	2b	1b4	1b4	1b2	1b2	1b1	1b	807	1a	6,224
company...	V	2a	2b	2a	1b5	1b4	1b3	2a	2a	1b	566	1a	11,276
whether....	V	3b	3b	3a	2b	2a	1b4	2a	1b4	†	398	1a	6,853
case.....	VI	3a	3b	3a	2b	2a	2a	2a	2a	†	332	1a	7,855
note.....	VI	2a	2b	2a	2a	2a	2a	2a	2a	†	267	1a	12,193
sir.....	VI	2b	4a	3a	3a	2b	3a	3a	2a	†	218	1a	17,944
fact.....	VI	4a	4a	4b	3b	5b	2b	2a	†	160	1a	6,999
trust.....	VI	4b	5b	5b	4b	5b	6	†	41	1a	6,555
credit....	VI	5b	5a	5a	†	30	1a	9,954

* The symbols are to be interpreted as follows: 1a1, 1-100 words; 1a2, 101-200 words; 1a3, 201-300 words; 1a4, 301-400 words; 1a5, 401-500 words; and 1a, 1-500 words; 1b, 501-1,000 words; 2a, 1,001-1,500 words, and so on.

† The words are outside the first 1,000 of the Rinsland list.

NUMBER GROUPING AS A FUNCTION OF COMPLEXITY

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DEMAY'S LEVELS OF REPRESENTATION

A THEORY proposed by DeMay¹ in 1935 and widely accepted in the literature and in practice proposes that children move through four stages (levels of representation) in learning the concept of number as a group. These levels are:

- I. The object stage (representative objects)
- II. The picture stage (pictorial representations)
- III. The semiconcrete stage (geometric representations)
- IV. The abstract-number stage (number symbols)

DeMay outlines a program for children that begins with "concrete objects," progresses to experience with pictures of objects, then to "semiconcrete" materials (patterns of lines, dots, rings), and ends with the use of number symbols. No data accompany this proposal. No evidence exists that this hierarchy of representations has been evaluated through experimental use in the classroom.

Despite the lack of supporting evidence, many of the leading writers in

the field of elementary arithmetic have seized upon the DeMay proposal because of its inherent logic. Morton² in his 1937 volume recommends the "levels of representation" sequence. In fact, he devotes much of the opening chapter to an exposition of the idea. Questions 5, 6, and 7 at the end of the chapter are:

5. State briefly the four stages in the transition from concrete to abstract number which are recognized by DeMay.

6. Do you agree that pictures of objects are less concrete than objects themselves? Discuss.

7. Why do we call such material as circles, dots, and lines semiconcrete material?

Brueckner and Grossnickle,³ although giving no credit to DeMay, suggest a graded sequence of procedures starting with the use of the fact in a concrete, social situation; manipulation and grouping of concrete objects; the use of pictures; the use of semiconcrete representation such as

² R. L. Morton, *Teaching Arithmetic in the Elementary School*, Vol. I. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1937.

³ Leo J. Brueckner and F. E. Grossnickle, *How To Make Arithmetic Meaningful*. Philadelphia: J. C. Winston Co., 1947.

¹ Amy J. DeMay, "Arithmetic Meanings," *Childhood Education*, XI (June, 1935), 408-12.

lines and circles; and, finally, the abstract level—the written fact itself.

Wheat,⁴ in workbook materials developed for use in Grade I, follows a similar pattern in pictures showing (1) a social or life situation, (2) pictures of things in groups, and (3) geometric forms in groups.

Clearly, then, the DeMay hypothesis is widely held. The lack of attempts to validate it is serious when the following theoretical and observed grounds provide reason for doubt.

CRITICISMS OF DEMAY THEORY

The basic assumption that there is such a thing as concrete number has been questioned by Shouse,⁵ who states: "Strictly speaking there is no such thing as concrete number. Number is always abstract. Number must be thought into the concrete situation and is not inherent in it." It is interesting to note that this point of view was also stated in the much earlier classic work of McClellan and Dewey: "*Number* is not (psychologically) got from things, it is put *into* them."⁶

Einstein⁷ asserts that the concept of number is a free creation of thought, a self-created tool which simplifies the organizing of certain sensory experiences, but a tool which cannot be in-

ductively gained from sense experiences. In other words, there is no such thing as a "concrete" number idea.

The observed grounds for criticism are directed primarily against the assumption that children learn a number fact most easily by moving through the four stages (levels of representation) proposed by DeMay. Teachers in Stanford University classes in arithmetic methods and in-service study groups have reported that many first-graders apparently abstracted the cardinal idea from geometric-group arrangements with greater facility than they did from picture-group arrangements. Further, certain of the observed six-year-olds did not perceive the pictorial arrangements as groups but resorted to counting to find "how many." Yet these same six-year-olds recognized simple geometric-group arrangements as groups, without resorting to counting.

In the situations described, all the representations were two-dimensional and *were not differentiated* by the children as being either geometric or pictorial. While the children *apprehended the geometric forms more easily*, they referred to them as pictures. A geometric square or circle became a box or a ball. Thus, the levels of representation, as suggested by DeMay, were nonexistent.

A first-grade teacher described how

⁴ H. G. Wheat and M. L. Wheat, *Workbook, Row-Peterson Arithmetic Primer*. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Co., 1951.

⁵ J. B. Shouse, "The Difficulty of the Concrete," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXVII (November, 1937), 941.

⁶ J. A. McClellan and John Dewey, *The Psychology of Number*, p. 61. New York: Appleton & Co., 1896.

⁷ Albert Einstein, "Remarks on Bertrand Russell's Theory of Knowledge," in *The Philosophy of Bertrand Russell*, The Library of Living Philosophers, V, 287. Edited by P. A. Schilpp. Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University 1944.

a child working with a group of shells, three conchs and two pectines, could not perceive five shells in the situation. He perceived three shells of one kind and two shells of another and was unable to abstract "fiveness." A study by Carper⁸ indicated that factors of form or shape, context, and pattern of arrangement impeded the perception of "groupness." The problem of integrating or organizing a perceptual field depends on both the maturation and the previous experiences of the learner.

The "levels of representation" proposed by DeMay may be an inaccurate descriptive term. In DeMay's proposal, Level I, representation, is in three-dimensional terms (the object stage). At Levels II and III, representation is in two-dimensional terms (the picture stage). How can a picture of a circle be more or less representative of "circleness" than a "perfect circle" piston ring, for example? Both are circles. In fact, the three-dimensional steel circle may be perceived as a piston ring and not as a circle. Similarly, a picture, colored red, may be perceived as a ball. By the same kind of reasoning, "pictorial representations" would include all two-dimensional "geometric representations." It is impossible to make a "representative" distinction between certain kinds of "geometric representation" and "pictorial representation." A two-

dimensional three-by-three-inch red square may be both a geometric form and a red box. A two-dimensional blue circle is both a blue circle and a blue ball. When is a two-dimensional representation "geometric" and not "pictorial"?

DESIGN OF PRESENT STUDY

Because the DeMay hierarchy seemed to be an inaccurate description, this writer, after careful study of the literature and after preliminary testing and observation of children in the primary grades, has proposed a new hypothesis: complexity. When the pattern and the size of the perceptual field are held constant, the critical factor in the apprehension of number as a group is the degree of complexity of the perceptual field. Complexity is created by a lack of symmetry, by the component elements, by heterogeneity of group elements, and by poor figure-ground relation.

In order to test the complexity hypothesis, a new measuring device was constructed. A set of sixteen cards presented each of the numbers 4, 5, 6, and 7 in four complexity levels: Type I, geometric (squares, circles, and diamonds); Type II, uniform "semigeometric" (flower faces or butterflies); Type III, "mixed" (geometric forms, flower faces, birds, flags, and butterflies); and Type IV, complex pictorial (dragon, chair, doll, lamb, bear). One additional card, used in giving directions, was a 5 pattern in an arrangement of United States flags.

All arrangements were on seven-by-

⁸ Doris Carper, "Seeing Numbers as Groups in Primary-Grade Arithmetic," *Elementary School Journal*, XLIII (November, 1942), 166-70.

eleven-inch cards, with pictures placed on a grid so that each arrangement of the same number was in approximately the same pattern. Patterns used were the quadrat (4), the domino (5), and a pair of vertical columns of three (6), and a 3-3-1(7).

The design of the 6 and the 7 groups was intended to facilitate sub-grouping; 3-2-2, 3-3-1, 3-3, or 2-2-2. The 6 pattern was vertical, the 7 pattern horizontal, in order to inhibit practice effect.

Numbers 4, 5, 6, and 7 were chosen because Brownell⁹ had found that the 4 group represented the threshold of difficulty for first-graders and that the 7 group was difficult to apprehend at all levels.

By using test cards of four levels of complexity, it was possible to test the DeMay hierarchy and the complexity hypothesis simultaneously. Type I cards contained geometric forms only and were the least complex according to the complexity description. Type IV cards contained pictorial representations only and were the most complex according to the complexity description.

A combination of factors was designed to create complexity in the Type IV cards. Heterogeneity of group elements was achieved by the use of different units in the group, for example, a cup of coffee, a clown, a doll, instead of like group elements. Lack of

symmetry was achieved by using representations with irregular outlines instead of symmetrical representations, such as circles or balanced flower faces. Several component elements were introduced into each representation. Mixed colors, detail of figure, as in a boy with a cowboy outfit with boots, guns, and other accouterments, were used for this purpose. Poor figure-ground relationships were established by having little color contrast between the figures and the background in certain instances.

Type I cards corresponded to Level III, the semiconcrete stage, of the DeMay hierarchy; and Type IV cards, to Level II, the picture stage. The findings must, therefore, support the DeMay hypothesis or the complexity hypothesis, but not both. Or the findings could be inconclusive, supporting neither theory.

THE POPULATION AND THE TESTING PROCEDURE

School populations were selected in three varying socioeconomic areas. Socioeconomic criteria used were housing and school reputation. Seventy-six first-graders, twenty-eight second-graders, and twenty-four fifth-graders were tested. Grades I, II, and V were selected in order to provide data at several levels. Because of space limitations only first-grade results are given here.

Children in each class were introduced to the investigator in the regular classroom. They were asked if they liked to play games and were told

⁹ W. A. Brownell, *The Development of Children's Number Ideas in the Primary Grades*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 35. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1928.

that, if they so desired, they could play an arithmetic game. Reactions were uniformly positive, and there was no overt evidence of anxiety or concern. The word *test* was never used.

The pupil was told that he would be shown a series of cards and that he was to tell how many things he saw as quickly as possible. "Let's see how fast you can do it. It's easy," was the standard approach. The sample card was not used with the fifth-graders, but was introduced when it was apparent that the younger children needed a trial example.

The children verbalized readily when asked, "How did you know it was —? Show and tell me." Following each response, the child was encouraged by a statement such as "good" or "fine." The data were recorded on a special form with space to indicate time, level of response, and observation notes of any lip-movements, finger counting, pointing, verbalizations, and the like. Level A was counting; Level B was grouping and counting; Level C was subgrouping; and Level D was total grouping. These levels are also referred to as "maturity of response," Level A being least mature, Level D the most mature.

Because normal distribution could not be assumed, the chi square statistical technique was used to determine the significance of the findings.

FINDINGS

In the data in Table 1 three important trends appear for Grade I.

1. *The greater the complexity of the*

number-group presentation, the greater the amount of counting that occurs; and, conversely, the simpler the presentation, the less counting. For example, 56 per cent of the children count for the most

TABLE 1
PER CENT OF VARIOUS RESPONSES
BY FIRST-GRADE PUPILS

LEVEL OF COMPLEXITY	PER CENT OF PUPILS RESPONDING TO NUMBER GROUP			
	4	5	6	7
Counting (Level A)				
Type I.....	14.5	23.7	32.0	47.1
Type II.....	10.8	33.3	37.0	57.3
Type III.....	22.2	21.6	41.9	57.5
Type IV.....	53.4	56.2	50.7	59.5
Grouping (Level D)				
Type I.....	77.6	42.1	20.0	4.3
Type II.....	77.0	48.0	8.2	5.3
Type III.....	58.3	55.4	13.5	2.7
Type IV.....	21.9	21.9	5.5	4.1
Subgrouping (Level C)				
Type I.....	7.9	34.2	48.0	48.6
Type II.....	12.2	18.7	54.8	37.3
Type III.....	19.4	23.0	44.6	39.3
Type IV.....	27.7	21.9	43.8	36.5

complex pattern of the number 5 group, while only 24 per cent count for the least complex pattern of this 5 group. This difference is significant at the .001 level.

2. *The size of the number-group presentation affects the level of response.* The ability to group rather than to count declines as the number groups become larger. Seventy-eight per cent

of the first-graders grouped the least complex number 4 card, while only 4 per cent grouped the least complex number 7 card.

Clearly, the per cent of children counting or grouping varies consist-

TABLE 2

MEDIAN TIME IN SECONDS TAKEN BY FIRST-GRADE PUPILS FOR COUNTING (A), SUBGROUPING (C), AND TOTAL GROUPING (D)

NUMBER GROUP AND LEVEL OF COMPLEXITY	MEDIAN TIME		
	Counting (A)	Sub- grouping (C)	Total Grouping (D)
4 group:			
Type I.....	2.7	1.6	1.1
Type II.....	2.9	1.5	1.2
Type III.....	3.4	1.8	1.5
Type IV.....	3.6	2.9	2.5
5 group:			
Type I.....	3.7	2.6	1.8
Type II.....	3.4	2.6	1.5
Type III.....	3.6	2.1	1.5
Type IV.....	3.5	3.4	2.0
6 group:			
Type I.....	3.6	2.0	1.5
Type II.....	3.9	1.9	1.9
Type III.....	3.7	2.0	1.6
Type IV.....	4.2	2.3	1.6
7 group:			
Type I.....	3.7	2.4	3.9
Type II.....	4.1	3.1
Type III.....	4.4	2.4	2.1
Type IV.....	4.6	3.4	2.4

ently with the complexity of the card. Typically, however, there is a limit to the size of the number presentation which can be grouped. First-graders usually could not group beyond the numbers 4 or 5 and, when dealing with the numbers 6 or 7, broke them down into subgroups or counted. For example, 25 per cent of the children sub-

grouped the most complex 4 pattern, while 44 per cent subgrouped the most complex 6 pattern.

3. *The speed of response is dependent upon both the size and the complexity of the number-group presentation.* For example, Table 2 shows that the median time required for counting the simplest 4 card was 2.7 seconds; the median time for counting the simplest 7 card was 3.7 seconds—an increase of about 37 per cent in time. The median time of 1.1 seconds for grouping the simplest 4 card and of 2.5 seconds for the most complex 4 card shows an increase of more than 125 per cent in time. In the first example, the speed of response was dependent on *size* of number. In the second instance, speed of response was dependent on *complexity*.

It is apparent, then, that a combination of the two factors, size of group and complexity, affects the speed of response. For example, the median time of 1.1 seconds required for grouping the simplest 4 card was less than half as much as the median time of 2.4 seconds for grouping the most complex 7 card. As shown in Table 2, complexity apparently affects counting time much more than it does grouping time. It should also be noted that the median time for grouping any number card at any level of complexity tends to be faster than that for counting or subgrouping. Table 2 reveals that fast responders are "groupers" and that slow responders are counters.

Some practice effect was noted in

response to cards of the 7 group and probably accounts for time discrepancies at Level C.

INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

The findings reported support the complexity hypothesis at first-grade level. The relation between type (complexity) and the level of response is significant. The data revealing this relation are shown in Table 3. Since, with the exception of the 7 group, these findings are significant, the data were analyzed further to determine the nature of the relation.

The method of chi square was used to test the significance of the differences in inter-card responses (Type I, simple, vs. Type IV, complex). The children in this experiment responded at more mature levels to Type I than to Type IV cards. Statistically, the differences were significant when the probability was .05 or less. In other words, these first-graders recognized the number groups on the least complex cards more readily than they did on the most complex cards. Complexity tended to create *counting* responses, simplicity tended to promote *grouping* responses. Since the pattern or arrangement of each number group was held constant, response differences were attributed to differences in the representations used, that is, complexity. It should be noted that this was true despite the fact that the pattern was the same for each presentation of a particular number. The nature of the representations would ap-

pear, therefore, to be a critical factor in perception of number groups.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR TEACHING

From the findings¹⁰ it is evident that increased attention should be given to the nature (complexity) of pictures used in textbooks, workbooks

TABLE 3

RELATION BETWEEN COMPLEXITY AND LEVEL OF RESPONSE AT GRADE I, USING CHI SQUARE AND PROBABILITY

	NUMBER GROUP			
	4	5	6	7
Chi square...	48.3	30.1	12.3	4.2
Probability...	.001	.001	.03	.30

or otherwise to develop the concept of number as a group. The use of complicated group pictures tends to produce counting, not grouping, and hence will not assist the learner in developing the ability to apprehend number groups. For the primary grades it is important to use groupings composed of relatively simple elements. It would make little difference whether the number groups were pictures of things or of geometric forms if they met the criterion of simplicity.

Because trends in good teaching have been toward the functional use of number ideas in social situations,

¹⁰ Space limitations prevent the inclusion of a more elaborate treatment of the findings. For the complete study, see Daniel Turnure Dawson, "Number Grouping as a Function of Complexity." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, School of Education, Stanford University, 1952.

many textbook and workbook writers have used complicated pictures, involving much detail and activity, to develop number ideas. This has been for the purpose of making the situation "real" or "lifelike." As Brownell¹¹ has so cogently pointed out, however, because a situation is *socially significant*, it does not necessarily follow that it is also *mathematically meaningful*. Findings of this study would seem to indicate that the use of complex social-pictorial representations for Grade I may impede the development of the mathematical idea of groupness. According to the complexity hypothesis and the findings of this study, then, it is probable that many primary-grade children will resort to counting and subgrouping in responding to the social-group type of pictorial presentation.

CONCLUSIONS

The differences in maturity of response and in time for response between the Type I (simple, geometric) and the Type IV (complex, pictorial) cards are significant. The complexity hypothesis is supported by the data

¹¹ W. A. Brownell, "The Place of Meaning in the Teaching of Arithmetic," *Elementary School Journal*, XLVII (January, 1947), 256-65.

collected from first-graders in this study.

A comparison of responses to Type I and to Type IV representations reveals that they are significantly different. The findings for Grade I are contrary to the DeMay hypothesis. The levels of representation suggested by DeMay indicate that the pictorial forms should precede the geometric presentation. Data in this study, however, indicate that this is not necessarily true. In this study first-graders were able to perceive groups in the simple geometric forms most easily. Responses to these forms were more mature and faster.

The data indicate that complexity impeded the perception of "groupness." The critical factor in apprehension of the group was its complexity and not its "geometric" or "pictorial" form. At the primary-grade level and at the early stages of instruction, it would be preferable to use simple pictorial representations in a variety of patterns to achieve the grouping ability.

Writers of textbooks and workbooks need to give much more attention to the nature of materials designed to develop grouping ability in primary-grade children.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

I. CURRICULUM, METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY, AND SUPERVISION

WALTER J. MOORE

University of Illinois

KENNETH D. NORBERG

Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California



SELECTED PUBLICATIONS in the field of the elementary-school curriculum, methods of teaching and study, and supervision, which appeared during the period from April 1, 1952, to March 31, 1953, are included in this bibliography. Foreign-language titles are not included, and popular articles on the topics are not cited unless they present facts not generally known or suggest an original and challenging point of view. The materials on curriculum and methods deal with general aspects of these topics; studies dealing with specific subjects will be listed in subsequent issues.

In this issue an additional aid for educational workers is supplied in a list of films given at the end of the list of publications.

CURRICULUM

350. AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS. *American School Curriculum*. Thirty-first Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington: American As-

sociation of School Administrators, 1953. Pp. 552.

Offers the administrator help in his task of leading the process of curriculum improvement.

351. BARTKY, JOHN A. "Windmills and Cockroaches: A Realist Looks at Curriculum Revision," *Clearing House*, XXVII (March, 1953), 387-93.

Treats sarcastically the group-discussion method as an approach to curriculum revision and offers suggestions designed to facilitate study of elements involved in curriculum change.

352. BATHURST, EFFIE, and BLOUGH, GLENN. *Schools at Work in 48 States: A Study of Elementary School Practices*. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education Bulletin 1952, No. 13. Pp. x+138.

Reports extensive study of elementary-school practices in all the states, under such headings as "Teachers at Work," "Pupils at Work," "The School Program," "School and Community at Work Together," and "A Profession at Work on Its Problems."

353. BROWNELL, WILLIAM A. "The Three R's and Today's Schools," *NEA Journal*, XLI (September, 1952), 335-37.

Discusses developments in the elementary-school curriculum which have influenced practices, makes suggestions for meeting criticisms, and advances ideas for improving the evolving curriculum.

354. BUTTERWECK, JOSEPH S. "Core-Curriculum—The Ideal," *School and Society*, LXXVI (October 4, 1952), 213-15.

Considers current meanings attached to the term "core curriculum" and advances six characteristics of the ideal core program.

355. CASWELL, HOLLIS L. "Fundamentals for Tomorrow's Schools," *Educational Forum*, XVII (January, 1953), 133-41.

Describes "fundamentals for tomorrow's schools" as world understanding, active citizenship, wholesome personality, individual initiative, and physical health. Calls for an understanding of the relation between these objectives and education at the local level as the foundation stone for combating powerful forces opposing democracy today.

356. CREMIN, LAWRENCE A. "The Curriculum Maker and His Critics: A Persistent American Problem," *Teachers College Record*, LIV (February, 1953), 234-45.

Urges a reassessment of the struggles of curriculum makers of the past with the view of effectively combating destructive criticisms and persistent attacks upon those who make curriculums.

357. DERTHICK, L. G. "Venturing in Education: The Superintendent's Role in Curriculum Improvement," *NEA Journal*, XLII (February, 1953), 90-91.

Declares that the school administrator's task is to strive for perspective in the midst of many curriculum issues and believes that these processes offer possible solutions: (1) better definition of objectives, (2) better selection of content and experiences, (3) better organization of the curriculum, and (4) better instruction.

358. EBEBY, GEORGE W. "Front Line Observations on Curriculum Improvement," *North-Central Association Quarterly*, XXVII (January, 1953), 273-82.

Relates how curriculum improvement has been effected through the development of a transition program (retraining of teachers), an induction program (orientation of new teachers), and a consultant program (strengthening of in-service facilities).

359. ELLSWORTH, RUTH E. "Suggested Emphases for the Elementary School Curriculum," *Social Education*, XVII (February, 1953), 57-61.

Declares that the curriculum plan must meet the demands of pupil needs, of social realities, and of democratic values and offers nine emphases in curriculum development that have promise for elementary education.

360. FOX, ROBERT S. "A Continuous Program of Curriculum Improvement," *National Elementary Principal*, XXXII (February, 1953), 17-19.

Suggests approaches to the leadership responsibility of principals for directing programs of curriculum improvement.

361. GOODSON, WHITSITT R., and HASKEW, LAURENCE D. "Community School Criteria," *Educational Leadership*, X (January, 1953), 249-52.

Describes the search for criteria describing the community school and lists thirty characteristics and practices which indicate that "such a school is more than a physical entity, it is a concept, a point of view, a way of operation."

362. GRAVITT, BERNARD C. "Reviewing an Experience with Core Curriculum," *Kentucky School Journal*, XXXI (December, 1952), 35-38.

Reports an eight-phase procedure utilized in an experience with a core program which is thought applicable and profitable in any core-curriculum class.

363. HAMILTON, J. A. "Who Should Plan Curriculum?" *Education*, LXXIII (February, 1953), 388-90.

Declares that there is an undeniable need for the participation of "all persons concerned" in effecting curriculum change but maintains that the "basic essential need now is for a corps of curricular experts, curricular engineers or technologists."

364. HOPKINS, L. THOMAS. "Needs and Interests: A Sufficient Basis for the Elementary School Curriculum," *Viewpoints on Educational Issues and Problems*, pp. 104-11. Thirty-ninth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. LIII, No. 2. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1952.

Presents arguments for an elementary-school curriculum based on these propositions: (1) Needs and interests are the *only* basis. (2) Needs of children are the *best* single basis. (3) When developed by an *adequate process*, needs include all other active or proposed bases for the elementary-school curriculum. Through them children can learn better what they want and what adults expect them to achieve.

365. KNIFE, W. G. "Can You Put a New Program in an Old Classroom?" *School Executive*, LXXII (February, 1953), 64-66.

Maintains that new programs do not obtain optimum results in old classrooms and calls for well-planned classrooms with flexible activity alcoves to insure smooth-functioning social-civic core programs.

366. LEIPOLD, L. E. "Progressive Curriculum Revision," *School and Society*, LXXVII (January 24, 1953), 52-55.

Deplores the confusion surrounding much of the curriculum study of today, the paucity of genuine results, and lauds the "truly progressive schools . . . ever at work on several curriculum experiments at the same time."

367. MIEL, ALICE M. "Planning for Continuity in the Curriculum," *Teachers*

College Record, LIV (December, 1952), 131-37.

Sketches earlier attempts to provide for continuity in the curriculum, delineates aspects of continuity which must prevail in sound curriculum planning, and declares that the "judgment of the teacher using effective processes of group and individual planning is our only dependable source of continuity."

368. MIEL, ALICE, and OTHERS. "Conference Participants Survey the Curriculum Field," *Teachers College Record*, LIV (February, 1953), 269-74.

Summarizes discussion on problems relating to "the importance of a favorable climate for growth of people, the role of communication in aiding better understanding among people, the use of time as a vital factor in co-operative action, and the place of community participation in curriculum development."

369. NATIONAL MIDCENTURY COMMITTEE FOR CHILDREN AND YOUTH. *Report on Children and Youth. 1950-1952*. Raleigh, North Carolina: Health Publications Institute, 1952. Pp. 46.

Recounts highlights of programs developing from the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth by reviewing reports from the states, national organizations, and federal agencies.

370. PIERCE, PAUL R. "Chicago's Preschool Curriculum," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (November, 1952), 138-43.

Describes the preschool curriculum in Chicago public schools through the stages of development of lists of activities, involvement of parents, and the utilization of the suggested activities.

371. *Promising Practices in Elementary Schools: A Publication of the Cooperative Study in Elementary Education*. Atlanta, Georgia: Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1952. Unpagged.

Describes a thirteen-state regional effort to improve education through initiating a program of action designed to develop better elementary schools and to accelerate improvements in curriculum and teaching.

372. RAGAN, WILLIAM B. *Modern Elementary Curriculum*. New York: Dryden Press, Inc., 1953. Pp. 570.

Intended as a basic textbook for college courses and as a guide for teachers and administrators in the field, this book analyzes some of the fundamental sources from which teachers receive guidance in making educational decisions and considers some of the problem in the developing of the over-all design of the curriculum and in the improving of the areas commonly included in the elementary program.

373. SHANE, HAROLD G. "Curriculum Practices in Educationally Interesting Elementary Schools," *Nation's Schools*, L (August, 1952), 41-42.

Reports on status of curriculum trends, practices and resources in thirty-five school systems recognized for their excellent programs.

374. STRATEMEYER, FLORENCE B.; MCKIM, MARGARET G.; and SWEET, MAYME. *Guides to a Curriculum for Modern Living*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. Pp. 60.

A booklet which endeavors to "give especial attention to the relation that must exist between an effective curriculum and the persistent life-situations faced by all children, youth, and adults."

375. *The Three R's in the Elementary School*. Prepared by a Committee of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Washington: National Education Association, 1952. Pp. x+152.

Clarifies issues related to the teaching of the three R's "because of a strong conviction on the part of many educators that

abilities and skills in the three R's, functionally developed, are more important in the living of all people today than they ever were in the past, and that these abilities are best developed in a total, meaningful setting, not in isolated periods of the school day."

376. TIERNEY, W. F. "Directing Educational Change," *Education*, LXXIII (November, 1952), 191-98.

Considers purposes underlying curriculum development and the roles played by various planning agents.

METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY¹

377. *Bases for Effective Learning*. Thirty-first Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Elementary Principal, Vol. XXXII, No. 1. Washington: Department of Elementary School Principals, 1952. Pp. 390.

A compilation of forty-seven articles offering a wide sampling of practices in elementary education throughout the United States.

378. *Children Can Work Independently*. Bulletin No. 90. Washington: Association for Childhood Education International, 1952. Pp. 36.

Presents anecdotal accounts of kindergartners and children of the first six grades working independently through committees, setting up standards, and co-operating in all-school projects.

379. FICKES, JAMES A. "Deciding How To Evaluate," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVI (October, 1952), 133-39.

Reports a survey revealing techniques considered suitable by teachers for appraisal

¹ See also Item 556 (Pilant) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*, and Item 564 (Thelen) in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1953, issue of the *School Review*.

ing learning situations in the elementary school.

mentary Education, XXI (August, 1952), 42-50.

Regards grouping as an instructional problem and presents eight challenges to leadership in teachers, supervisors, and principals.

380. FOWLKES, JOHN GUY; HORKHEIMER, P. A.; and CODY, P. T. (editors). *Elementary Teachers' Guide to Free Curriculum Materials*. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service, 1952 (ninth edition). Pp. 338 (mimeographed).

Provides annotated lists of recent materials available free of charge to teachers.

385. HEFFERNAN, HELEN, and OTHERS. "What Research Says about Non-Promotion," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, XXI (August, 1952), 7-24.

A comprehensive review of the literature on nonpromotion. Concludes that the practice is "devastating to the personality of children. It deadens initiative, paralyzes the will to achieve, destroys the sense of security and acceptance in the family circle, and promotes truancy and delinquency."

381. *Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials*. Nashville, Tennessee: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1952. Pp. viii+194.

Brings up to date previous lists and contains over 2,500 entries, about 37 per cent of which are new. All entries are evaluated on the basis of such criteria as content, timeliness of subject matter, method of presentation, and unbiased character of the material.

382. GOODLAD, JOHN I. "Research and Theory Regarding Promotion and Non-promotion," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (November, 1952), 150-55.

Cites research which indicates prevalence of patterns of undersirable growth characteristics and unsatisfactory school progress among nonpromoted children.

383. HARTSIG, BARBARA, and LANGENBACH, LOUISE. "Studies of Three Children Who Have Been Retained a Grade in School," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, XXI (August, 1952), 51-63.

Recounts cases of retained children which seem to indicate the need for the school to examine continuously the effects of promotional policies upon the development of children.

386. KITCH, DONALD E. "Does Retardation Cause Drop-outs?" *California Journal of Elementary Education*, XXI (August, 1952), 25-28.

Reviews the limited data available and observes that evidence points to a strong relation between retardation and early school leaving.

387. HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J. "The Functions of Successful Discipline," *Understanding the Child*, XXI (April, 1952), 35-38.

Distinguishes wholesome from unwholesome functions of discipline in order that the management of discipline may operate more effectively in the care and rearing of children.

388. *Human Values in the Elementary School*. Washington: Department of Elementary School Principals, 1952. Pp. 96. Considers the place of human values in school programs and outlines suggested activities in various curriculum areas.

389. JOHNSON, EARL S. "Field Study: An Experience in Getting Meaning," *Educational Leadership*, X (January, 1953), 229-33.

384. HEFFERNAN, HELEN. "Grouping Pupils for Well-rounded Growth and Development," *California Journal of Ele-*

Cites advantages inherent in proper utilization of field-study experiences for effecting changes in perspective and meaning for pupils.

390. PARKER, BEATRICE F. "The Parent-Teacher Conference," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (January, 1953), 270-74.

Makes suggestions for facilitating good relations between the school and its patrons through utilization of a sound program of parent-teacher conferences.

391. ROBINSON, THOMAS E. "The Effects of Suburban Life on Communities and Their Schools," *School Executive*, LXXII (September, 1952), 69-70.

Delineates characteristics of residents of suburban areas and discusses changes needed to care for their more differentiated pupil populations.

392. RUSSELL, DAVID H., and OTHERS. "The Influence of Repetition of a Grade and of Regular Promotion on the Attitudes of Parents and Children toward School," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, XXI (August, 1952), 29-41.

Reports a study which showed not only that repetition has an unfavorable influence upon a pupil's academic achievement and a bad effect on his general adjustment but that it tends to produce enemies for the school—pupils who dislike the school and parents who are critical of the school program.

393. SCHNEIDER, ELSA. *How Children and Teacher Work Together*. (Place of Subject Series.) Federal Security Agency, Office of Education Bulletin 1952, No. 14. Pp. iv+24.

Presents examples of results in elementary schools where children and teachers cooperatively work toward goals that are important to them as individuals and as group members.

394. SCHUMANN, V. M. "Is Homework on the Decline?" *Catholic Educational Review*, LI (February, 1953), 88-98.

Reports a study which aimed (1) to ascertain the general policies and practices relative to homework in diocesan elementary schools and (2) to summarize the opinions of Catholic educators concerning the problems of homework in these schools.

395. SMITTER, FAITH. *Needs of Rural Children and Youth in California*. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXI, No. 10. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1952. Pp. vi+32.

Describes the responsibilities of leadership and indicates practices that may be used by rural communities in helping themselves.

396. SWEAT, CLIFFORD H. "Selecting Instructional Materials," *National Elementary Principal*, XXXII (February, 1953), 12-13, 21.

Enumerates criteria for selecting instructional materials and cites the key role of the teacher in their utilization.

397. TABA, HILDA. "New Tools for New Needs," *Educational Leadership*, X (April, 1953), 433-37.

Cites the need for new techniques and gives examples of experimental development of methods designed to get at such areas as interpersonal relations; socio-economic and cultural backgrounds; and attitudes, feelings, and meanings.

SUPERVISION²

398. ADKINS, EDWIN P., and PROUDFOOT, BLEND. "A State Looks at Its Supervisory Program," *Educational Leadership*, X (April, 1953), 428-32.

Describes factors influencing decision to launch county-wide pilot studies designed

² See also Item 31 (Kaplan) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1953, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

to facilitate evaluation of supervisory practices.

399. ANDREWS, WENDELL B. "The Unassigned Teacher," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (January, 1953), 286-88.

Enumerates benefits of utilizing unassigned teachers who participate in a variety of school activities directed at the improvement of the school's instructional program.

400. ASHMORE, HENRY L. "The Supervising Teacher: The Pivotal Person in Student-Teaching," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXIX (February, 1953), 103-7.

States the case for adequate programs for training supervising teachers since these individuals are vital to the success of any student-teaching program.

401. AYER, FRED C. "An Experiment in Teaching an Introductory Course in Instructional Supervision Based on Guiding Principles," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXVIII (October, 1952), 321-32.

An experimental course in supervision based on a set of leading principles was evaluated by having the persons in the course respond to a check list of practices and administrative provisions related to the principles.

402. BARTKY, JOHN A. *Supervision as Human Relations*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1953. Pp. xii+308.

A textbook which envisions supervision as a human-relations study, emphasizing those aspects of human relations which are typical of school staff organization.

403. BERGER, MAX. "Checklist for Self-evaluation in Teaching Skills," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (October, 1952), 101-4.

A general guide designed to assist teachers in self-improvement and for the guidance of supervisory personnel.

404. BLAHA, M. JAY. "When and How a Consultant Can Be Used Most Effectively," *Educational Leadership*, X (November, 1952), 96-101.

Offers many suggestions relative to the effective utilization of consultant services in the improvement of in-service programs.

405. CODY, ROBERT B. "Practice Teachers Can Teach," *Educational Leadership*, X (November, 1952), 85-89.

Re-examines teaching procedures in light of insights gained from supervising activities of practice teachers.

406. DOWNING, LOVELLE C. "How a Co-ordinator Works with Teachers and Principals," *Educational Leadership*, X (November, 1952), 107-11.

Offers a progress report which reviews the service activities of a co-ordinator responsible for the co-ordination of several areas commonly found in the intermediate grades of elementary schools.

407. FRAZIER, ALEXANDER. "Supervision's Goal," *Educational Leadership*, X (November, 1952), 75-79.

Contentends that the goal of supervision may be defined as providing "as much expertness in what we ought to do as in what we must."

408. HERRICK, THERAL T. "Classroom Orientation—A Part of the Learning Process," *Michigan Education Journal*, XXX (September, 1952), 16-17.

Defines classroom orientation as assisting the pupil to adjust to all the educational experiences connected with the classroom and offers reasons for its furtherance.

409. LIPPITT, GORDON L. "What Are the Skills of Leadership for Teachers? For Children?" *Viewpoints on Educational Issues and Problems*, pp. 152-57. Thirty-ninth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. LIII, No. 2. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1952.

Describes factors affecting leadership among children, considers some of the requirements of a leader, and advances suggestions for the development of leadership qualities by teachers.

410. MIEL, ALICE, and OTHERS. "Supervisors I Have Known," *Educational Leadership*, X (November, 1952), 90-95.

Presents a composite picture of the feelings of a summer-school class toward supervisors and supervision by quoting from the experiences of the group.

411. MORRISON, GAYLORD D. "Professional Reading: Survey of Practices," *Clearing House*, XXVII (October, 1952), 101-3.

Reports a survey of 123 teachers in mid-western public schools which reveals that little is being done to utilize the potentialities of an in-service program through professional reading.

412. QUATTELBAUM, VIRGINIA. "The Visiting Teacher's Role in Guidance," *Educational Leadership*, X (March, 1953), 342-46.

Describes the various relations of the visiting teacher with teachers, pupils, and parents in improving rural educational programs.

413. RONK, MARY E. "Principal Leadership for Instructional Improvement," *National Elementary Principal*, XXXII (October, 1952), 16-18.

Identifies areas of leadership in improving instruction and enumerates some aspects of curriculum planning which challenge the principal interested in initiating change.

414. SCHMIDT, RALPH L. W. "Supervisory Responsibilities of the Superintendent in Elementary Grades of Small, Twelve-Grade Systems," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXIX (January, 1953), 27-35.

Reports a study which sought to determine the extent to which supervision is carried on in the elementary grades of small, twelve-grade systems in Nebraska, and recommends practices and procedures appropriate to schools with varying, but small, enrolments.

415. SMITTER, FAITH. "Changing Concepts Affect Supervision," *Educational Leadership*, X (March, 1953), 375-80.

Offers suggestions for improving the effectiveness of consultative services of supervisors in light of the changed roles of such specialists.

416. STILES, LINDLEY J. "Supervision: Guiding the Professional Growth of Beginning Teachers," *Viewpoints on Educational Issues and Problems*, pp. 286-93. Thirty-ninth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. LIII, No. 2. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1952.

Cites reasons for failure of supervision to gain complete acceptance, defines the proper limits of supervision, and offers several principles underlying the so-called "guidance approach" in supervision.

417. THOMPSON, ETHEL. "So Begins—So Ends the Supervisor's Day," *Educational Leadership*, X (November, 1952), 80-84.

Offers insights into a philosophy of supervision together with descriptions of some of the activities necessary for implementation of that philosophy.

418. WOOD, HUGH B. (editor). *Supervision of Curriculum Planning and Development*. Curriculum Bulletin No. 110. Eugene, Oregon: School of Education, University of Oregon, 1952. Pp. 20 (mimeographed).

Describes approaches to curriculum planning, principles of organization, and procedures commonly used; and considers some of the barriers to improvement, as well as means of dealing with resistance.

419. WYNN, RICHARD. "The Climate of Good Staff Morale," *Educational Outlook*, XXVII (January, 1953), 63-69.

Urges development of a work climate which promotes better adjustment, satisfaction, creativity, production, and growth through the co-operative assessment, exploration, and redirection of the climates in which staff members live and operate.

FILMS³

The following list of selected instructional motion pictures is restricted to recent 16mm films not previously listed in this journal. All listings are sound films unless otherwise indicated.

420. *The Elementary School*. (3 parts) Richmond, Virginia: Film Production Service, Virginia Department of Education, 1952.

Part I (25 minutes, black and white or color) deals with various factors involved in a good school environment, such as plant and school equipment, pupil and teacher welfare, and provisions for physical

³ See also Items 805 (*Design of American Public Education*) and 806 (*School and the Community*) in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*, and Item 586 (*First Lessons*) in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1953, issue of the *School Review*.

and mental health of pupils. Part II (25 minutes, black and white or color) presents typical experiences through which children develop skills in language and number and also suggests ways of promoting interests in the practical and fine arts. Part III (20 minutes, black and white or color) documents some learning experiences in geography and the general area of social studies.

421. *Practicing Democracy in the Classroom*. 22 minutes, black and white. Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1953.

Demonstrates how democratic methods of group development in the classroom can contribute to the twofold purpose of citizenship training and good teaching.

422. *The School—The Child's Community*. 16 minutes, black and white. Detroit: Audio Visual Materials, College of Education, Wayne University, 1951.

Shows how children in the school "community" can be encouraged to accept responsibilities and share in making decisions that affect them.

423. *What Greater Gift*. 28 minutes, black and white and color. Washington: Division of Press and Radio Relations, National Education Association, 1952.

Typical classroom scenes show some of the aspects of modern education. A high-school girl, considering teaching as a career, learns about the professional preparation required for good teaching.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

JOHN A. BARTKY, *Supervision as Human Relations*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1953. Pp. xii+308. \$4.00.

Reference to the table of contents in book after book on supervision indicates no small measure of confusion in defining the limits of this important area of education. With few notable exceptions, books on supervision try to cover almost every aspect of education considered important to the school program. For a long time, one of two approaches has been demanded: either recognition that supervision does not exist apart from administration or curriculum or justification of supervision as a delimited area to which attention must be directed.

Dean Bartky faced this problem as he sought to add a book on supervision to those on the shelves. Fortunately, he succeeded in justifying supervision as a distinct and necessary area for concern. Supervision *can* be separated from administration, curriculum, evaluation, and school-plant planning, and it is more than just a sampling from each area. As the author states in the Preface of *Supervision as Human Relations*:

It [supervision] is that area of education which concerns itself with the dynamics of teacher personality within the teaching environment—the area of study which explores teachers' needs and drives; which investigates the techniques for redirecting and submerging those needs and drives which are antagonistic to good instruction and the techniques for inducing and stimulating those needs and drives which are conducive to improved teaching behavior. We shall call this area "supervision" [p. v].

Current books on supervision stress the dynamic nature of modern supervision, with

emphasis on group process and the application of sound principles of human relations. Bartky, while in no way denying this emphasis, sees the necessity for prior attention to a study of teacher personality. He portrays the supervisor as a "teacher of teachers," stressing study of the learner as a first step in teaching.

The sixteen chapters fall easily into at least five distinct sections. Chapters i, ii, and iii build up carefully, from other writings and from the author's own thought and experience, the philosophy of supervision which guides the book. Supervision is seen as "teaching teachers on the job to improve their instruction" (p. 32). This task requires at various times each of the kinds of supervision that have been discussed in the literature, namely, autocratic, inspectional, representative, co-operative-democratic, invitational, scientific, and creative. The supervisor cannot carry out his task without understanding teacher personality in its more general terms and as manifested in individual teachers.

Chapters iv, v, and vi treat in a rigorous way the problem of teacher personality. After discussing typologies put forth by leaders in the field of personality, Bartky postulates the following teacher-personality categories: the kindergarten-primary, the middle-elementary, the upper-elementary, and the high-school. This, he admits, is a categorization based entirely on his own experience and with little supporting evidence. Realizing that the categories are not intended to have rigid limits, the reviewer found them reasonable and helpful. Testing of such

categories would appear to be a fruitful field for research.

Chapters vii, viii, and ix turn from the teacher to the school environment in which the teacher functions. Attention is given to "The Supervisory Incident," "Supervising the Individual Teacher," and "Supervising Teachers in Groups."

In chapters x, xi, and xii attention is directed to teachers who need special assistance from the supervisor. There is the problem teacher, the inexperienced teacher, and the unsatisfactory teacher.

In the next three chapters the author deals with supervision as a school function in the elementary school (xiii), in the secondary school (xiv), and in terms of school system organization (xv). Chapter xv deals capably with the difficult problem of supervision as related to size of system.

The book finishes with an anticlimactic chapter on in-service education. Chapter xvi is the weakest in the book and adds little to the development of the writer's views on supervision. Rather than give such a cursory glance at particular in-service education activities, it would have been better if the author had omitted the entire chapter.

The book is certainly one of the most valuable contributions to the literature of supervision that has appeared in many years. Its careful delimitation of scope and its rigorous treatment of the topics included, together with a standard of prose too rarely found in educational books, make it an extremely useful reference for those who supervise, those who are supervised, and those who teach classes in supervision. By no means the least value of this book is to stimulate supervisors to learn more about the teachers they teach and the kinds of situations in which they find themselves. A supplementary reading list at the end of each chapter is helpful in this regard.

In conclusion, mention must be made of the author's sprightly humor. No reader will forget the story of how a casual word spoken by a district superintendent resulted in a

rash of art displays of "pink fish freckled with purple polka dots swimming in a yellow sea" (p. 38).

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ARTHUR E. TRAXLER, ROBERT JACOBS, MARGARET SELOVER, AND AGATHA TOWNSEND, with the advice and co-operation of the PUBLIC SCHOOLS ADVISORY COMMITTEE OF THE EDUCATIONAL RECORDS BUREAU, *Introduction to Testing and the Use of Test Results in Public Schools*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1953. Pp. x+114. \$2.50

The hope is expressed by the senior author in his Foreword to this book that "this publication will serve as a practical, down-to-earth handbook for schools beginning the use of objective tests, for teacher discussion groups, for in-service training programs, for persons who have had experience with tests but who desire to brush up on the simpler fundamentals of testing, and for introductory classes in tests and measurements" (p. x). The book appears more useful for the first three categories than for the latter two. New ideas for measurement are not presented. The authors have used their very considerable experience of working with teachers as a background for interpreting standard ideas in testing into classroom situations that will answer the usual questions of teachers.

The material in the book has been organized around answers to nine broad questions:

- What do tests contribute to an understanding of the individual pupil?
- How shall we plan a testing program?
- How can tests be selected?
- How should tests be given?
- How should tests be scored?
- How shall we analyze and interpret test results?
- How shall we record test results?
- How shall we use test results?
- How does all this apply to a specific case?

This organization could certainly be useful in discussion sessions for in-service training, but such discussion should not be confined to the ideas appearing in the content. References are suggested "for anyone who wishes to read more extensively" (p. 3); it would seem more appropriate to suggest them for anyone serious about using tests.

The actual content is noticeably more narrow than is implied by the title plus the chapter headings. The introduction, too, implies a broad concept of tests. By page 3, however, this concept is considerably narrowed by the statement, "The chapters which follow deal with questions commonly asked by teachers who participate for the first time in a program of objective testing." The content on tests deals with published, standardized tests of short-answer format, with emphasis on multiple-choice tests, although it is true that the cumulative records discussed and illustrated in the last three chapters include much other pertinent information. Also, it is difficult to see why the title includes the words "public schools," especially since some of the forms used were prepared expressly for independent schools.

The book can make a very useful contribution for teacher-discussion groups, although it is hoped that such training would be supervised by someone highly familiar with the field. The chapter on giving tests should be especially helpful. The material on analysis of test results is written in such a way that it should not excite the usual emotional blocks to using statistics. And the last chapter, in presenting fully a specific case, should be a suggestive reference in classes on testing and guidance. Readers who are highly trained technically will be able to find errors of omission or implication, but complaints about these will be mostly froth, since the authors were not writing for such persons. One could complain that the authors have attempted to answer the common questions of teachers in a simple fashion when there is no simple answer—or when

"significant" would be a better criterion than "common."

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JOHN T. WAHLQUIST, WILLIAM E. ARNOLD, ROALD F. CAMPBELL, THEODORE L. RELLER, and LESTER B. SANDS, *The Administration of Public Education*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. viii+612. \$6.00.

The Administration of Public Education had at least four handicaps associated with its writing and publication. In the first place, several very fine textbooks or revisions of textbooks surveying the field of general educational administration have been published in the last two years. Another must be exceedingly well done to warrant its existence. Second, *The Administration of Public Education* is planned with a dual purpose. It is designed both as a textbook for graduate students in educational administration and as a field manual for administrators in service. It is difficult for one publication to fulfil both purposes satisfactorily. Third, this book is a product of the joint labors of five authors. To achieve continuity and integration, with each writer doing justice to the fields in which he is particularly competent, constitutes a problem. Lastly, one of the main purposes of the book is to demonstrate how democratic administration may operate in actual practice. Many books have purported to do this but have failed to translate theory into practical administrative procedures. A good textbook must avoid this pitfall.

John T. Wahlquist, the editor, and his fellow-authors deserve credit for surmounting these handicaps and producing an outstanding book in the field of educational administration. Its comprehensiveness recommends it for beginning courses designed to give the student an overview of educational administration. Its many illustrations, suggestions,

and practical examples make it a valuable addition to the library of the school superintendent and principal.

Much up-to-date material, the result of recent study and research, is included in this volume. Reports of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration are drawn upon freely. The authors have participated in the work of this organization and have incorporated the best of the collective thinking of leaders in the field.

The first chapter in the book defines a program of modern education and outlines the type of democratic leadership that must serve this program. A series of chapters follows dealing with the structure of education on the federal, state, and local levels. Sequential chapters treat the major administrative functions dealing with pupil personnel, staff personnel, supervisory leadership, curriculum development, special services, educational finance, business management, the school plant, transportation, appraisal of the educational program, and public relations. A concluding chapter, entitled "The Challenge of Administration," emphasizes the competencies needed if administrators are to be the educational statesmen demanded as leaders in today's schools and communities.

In the judgment of the reviewer, three chapters deserve particular mention. The chapter on "Federal Government and Education" is a clear and concise statement of the labyrinth of federal-state relations in education. Chapter xi, "Financing Education," contains an excellent and understandable enumeration of the basic elements in a sound state program of financing. The chapter on "Public Relations and Public Participation" is the most inclusive single chapter on this subject that the reviewer has read.

The opening chapter seems not quite up to the high standard of the rest of the book. Approximately half of the chapter consists of quoted material, drawn from other sources and not always knit together well. There are contradictions in other chapters that need

ironing out. For example, these two statements are at odds:

Most educators today believe that the classroom teachers is the most influential member of the school staff in the guidance of pupils [p. 202].

... The attitudes of teachers toward educational experiences are such that personal guidance of the child is practically excluded from consideration [p. 341].

The latter statement is mitigated a bit by a plea for in-service education leading to a change of attitude, but it still stands as a rather sweeping indictment not characteristic of many teachers who hold child needs foremost in their teaching.

Perhaps two very minor suggestions may be permitted. The form of footnote citations caused trouble because footnotes for references previously cited fail to give sufficient information to locate easily the book or article to which reference is being made. It would have been helpful, too, if the bibliographies at the ends of the chapters had contained brief annotations and, in a number of instances, more specific page references to the portions of books which deal with the field being discussed. It is likely that this book will prove so useful a treatise that there will be succeeding editions. If these minor suggestions have merit, perhaps they can be incorporated.

HOWARD R. JONES

University of Michigan



WILLIAM E. MARTIN and CELIA BURNS STENDLER, *Child Development: The Process of Growing Up in Society*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1953. Pp. xxii+520.

To synthesize the material pertinent to the study of child development into a body of knowledge, and to present the knowledge in such a manner that those concerned with training and educating children will find it useful as a basis for making practical deci-

sions, have long been major problems in this field. The task of identifying and isolating the salient facts, principles, and generalizations from the literature of the several related fields has not been an easy one. Still more difficult has been the problem of giving these facts, principles, and generalizations real meaning and value by pulling them together into an *organized* body of knowledge and theory essential to an understanding of the processes of growth and development. The authors of the textbook under review have addressed themselves to these two main objectives and, in the opinion of the reviewer, have achieved both objectives with notable success.

As they state in the Introduction, Martin and Stendler "look upon the process of socialization as crucial in the development of the child" (p. xxi). They further state, "We understand development to the extent that we understand socialization. It is to the latter, therefore, that this book gives its primary attention" (p. xxi). Having thus focused their attention, the authors devote relatively little space to the child as a human organism (Part I); while the three remaining sections deal with society and culture (Part II), socialization (Part III), and socializing agents (Part IV). This organization of the material may have its weaknesses, but it nonetheless seems consistent with the point of view held by the writers, namely, that "the process of development is a social process" (p. xx).

The opening section of the book presents a view of the child as he is by reason of his biological inheritance. An examination of the nature of society is then followed by an investigation of the interaction between the child and his society, through what the authors call the "socio-psychological" approach to the problem of socialization (in contrast to socialization from a psycho-analytic point of view). It is in the scholarly development of this concept of socialization as a learning process that the authors make a significant contribution to the literature.

Their treatment of "social learning," the essence of which is interaction between people, is thoughtful and thorough. Many references to recent studies in sociology, anthropology, and psychology not only serve to support the concepts developed but also add to the general usefulness of the volume as a textbook.

In the concluding section of the book the authors present a comprehensive summary of what is now known about such important social agents as the family, the school, the peer group, and the community, which serve as representatives of the society in guiding the socialization of the child.

Although written particularly for undergraduate students, the book contains challenging questions and suggested readings designed to meet the needs of graduate students and others with interests in the area of child development. Liberal use of photographs and appropriate cartoons not only serve to illustrate the points being developed but also tend to make the book more readable. This book is to be highly recommended.

GEORGE W. HOHL

Public Schools
Des Moines, Iowa

★

RUTH O. BRADLEY, *We Wrote a Symphony—So Can You!* Boston: C. C. Birchard & Co., 1952. Pp. 56+18.

Ruth O. Bradley presents a book on core teaching that should be useful not only to music teachers but to all teachers of the elementary-school grades. It should prove inspiring to both the teacher in training and the experienced teacher, to the teacher in the departmentalized school and the teacher in the one-room country schoolhouse. The philosophy throughout is that which any good teacher puts into practice in his everyday contacts with young people.

The author describes a project on aviation, which grew to include the writing of a

symphony entitled "Wings." She justifies the project in terms of appreciation, co-operation, expression, and growth. She includes an excellent section expanding her philosophy of teaching by describing a model teacher—the qualities mentioned are well worth the study of the prospective teacher and the teacher in service.

After describing the class with respect to number, intelligence, and background, and giving the backgrounds of both the instrumental program and the language arts in the Hester School, San Jose, California (where the project took place), she pursues the subject of the composing of the symphony.

The evaluation section which follows points up the many good end-results in terms of outside comments, student comments, skills expanded, and attitudes developed. This section tends to be partial, a natural tendency in a creative work. *None* of the disadvantages were pointed up, and I would venture to say that there were many. At the sixth-grade level, it may be questionable

practice to spend a whole year of school emphasizing airplanes and music. This is a time in a child's life for general education and the time when arithmetic arts are profitably pointed up. No mention is made of the conceivable boredom to some of the youngsters in the group.

In spite of any disadvantages which may or may not have been present, the book reports an admirable project that was attempted at the elementary-school level, though the symphony is not really a "symphony" in any sense of the word. It must have taken courage, enthusiasm, patience, perseverance, effort, imagination, and a sense of humor (all qualities of a good teacher as discussed by the author) to carry the project through.

In addition to an excellent bibliography, the conductor's score of "Wings" is included in the book.

ROBERT AITKEN MASON

*Laboratory School
University of Chicago*



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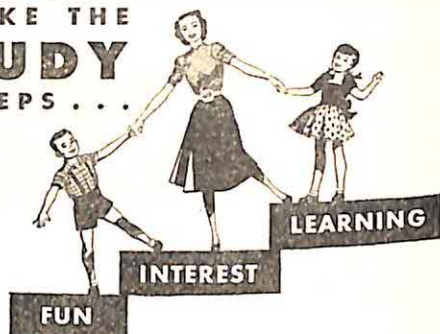


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THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS
CHICAGO 37 • ILLINOIS

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL

Volume LIV

*

OCTOBER 1953

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Number 2

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

*

OUR CHILDREN ARE STILL BEING CHEATED

THE NEWSPAPERS of the nation on August 26 carried the following statement by Lee M. Thurston, commissioner of education, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (unfortunately followed very soon by a notice of his death):

The American people are doing more than they have ever done before for the education of our nation's children. They are more actively working individually and organizationally for better schools and improved educational programs. They are taxing themselves to provide record numbers of school buildings and to help raise the salary level of qualified teachers. They are planning for the months and years ahead when all-time high enrolments will present new problems in most communities.

A continued reading, however, of the statement, as set forth in the advance release from the Office of Education and quoted more or less fully in

the newspapers, soon indicated that Mr. Thurston was not at all implying that the American people could now rest content with their achievements but rather that, however much they may be doing, it is not nearly enough. When the doors of public and private elementary schools throughout the nation reopened last month, approximately 26,931,000 children poured in, more than 3,000,000 of them into Grade I alone. The total number represents an increase of roughly 1,600,000 over the enrolment last year. Secondary schools, both public and private, had to accommodate almost 300,000 more students than last fall, and colleges and universities about 100,000 more. It is estimated that by 1960 there will be 10,000,000 more students in the nation's schools and colleges than there were in the spring of 1953.

How well able are the nation's

schools and colleges to provide for this influx? Despite the fact that American communities built record numbers of new classrooms during the last two years (50,000 last year and 47,000 the year before), facilities are alarmingly inadequate; and, unless by some means building is greatly increased, they will become increasingly so. The following facts and estimates are given in the Office of Education's release:

This fall the United States will be short about 345,000 public elementary- and secondary-school classrooms. Three classrooms out of every five will be overcrowded. One out of every five pupils will go to school this coming fall term in a schoolhouse which does not meet minimum fire-safety conditions.

School construction in the United States is not keeping pace with classroom needs. Increased enrolments, building deterioration and obsolescence will create the need for an additional 425,000 classrooms and related facilities by 1960. About 36,000 are in some stage of construction at this time.

Alarming as the shortage of classrooms may be, perhaps even more serious is the shortage of teachers. About this matter the Office of Education has the following to say:

The number of persons being prepared as teachers is inadequate to meet teacher needs in the United States. Some 45,700 qualified graduates for the elementary field came out of the colleges this year. Since there is a need for 118,000 public elementary-school teachers, the net shortage of qualified elementary-school teachers this September will be about 72,000. This shortage can be overcome only by further overcrowding, or by recruiting into the elementary schools teachers whose qualifications fall short of desirable standards.

"Further overcrowding"—if teachers themselves were to be polled concerning the factors most responsible for ineffective teaching, overcrowding of classrooms would probably head the list: it will be difficult for the many thousands of them who now have forty-five or more pupils in their classes to see how they can possibly crowd in still more.

The basic facts concerning the shortage of classrooms and the shortage of teachers have, of course, long ceased to be news to anyone, however uncertain the average individual may be concerning the exact figures involved. Citing statistics such as those given above can serve only to emphasize that the problem is still very much with us in spite of the great and commendable efforts and the real gains made by the many individuals and groups working on the problem.

Gloomy though the picture may still be, it is undeniable that gains have been made. For example, in the area of teachers' salaries (the low level of which has certainly been one of the chief causes of the difficulty experienced by administrators in recruiting new teachers and in retaining those at present on their staffs), the Office of Education cites figures furnished by the National Education Association which show that the average salary of the classroom teacher is now \$3,400. In his book, *Our Children Are Cheated*, written in 1947, Benjamin Fine stated that the salary at that time was \$2,000. Presumably, both figures represent the totals before taxes; and,

after taxes and the other kinds of deductions which bite into the salaries of most persons today, \$3,400 is still not adequate. Nor is it likely in itself to cause many persons to choose a teaching position in preference to the many others for which the pay is higher and the preparation needed much less. Nevertheless, the \$1,400 increase over the salary in 1947, even in view of the rise in the cost of living since then, is a substantial gain.

An even more important gain, perhaps, is the fact that the American people are being made increasingly aware of the seriousness of these shortages and of the critical implications of the facts for the future of the nation. They are being made aware of them by an intensive publicity campaign, through all the various media of mass communication, undertaken not only by local school boards and by educational organizations, such as the National Education Association, but also by such lay groups as chambers of commerce, veterans' organizations, and labor unions. The fact that, even though the campaign has been under way for at least the last six years, the problem is still acute suggests that the publicity must be continued and greatly intensified. Certainly, the United States is wealthy enough to provide not merely adequate but excellent schooling for all the children of the nation. Moreover, a basic principle of American education is that it is ultimately the responsibility of the people themselves. Surely, then, when they have been made sufficiently

aware of these shortages, the people will prove themselves willing to provide the funds necessary to remedy the conditions.

The preceding sentence, however, is not to be taken as implying that the problem can be solved by this one, simple method; that it is solely a financial problem; nor that, since it is a problem facing the American people as a whole, individual teachers and administrators, however satisfactorily situated they may think themselves to be in specific communities, can sit back and wait for the American people to solve it. True as it is that the problem is nation wide and that it can be solved only by the unified efforts of many organized groups, it is equally true that the solution rests in large part with the individual teacher and the individual administrator. They are the average citizen's, the average parent's, most immediate contact with the schools, and it is up to them especially to demonstrate to the citizen that the schools are worthy of his support. Moreover, from them most immediately the children in their classrooms, the group from which the teachers of the future must be drawn, get their conceptions (or their stereotypes) of the profession of the teacher.

In an article written in *Educational Leadership* in February of 1947 (the same year as that in which Benjamin Fine's book, *Our Children Are Cheated*, was published), Ernest O. Melby pointed out that the mere raising of teachers' salaries, important though it might be, would not in itself draw

a sufficient number of new teachers into the profession. So long as many young people remember their own school days as boring and uninspiring, with little relation to life as they live it outside the school, and remember their teachers as unimaginative taskmasters, they are not likely to regard the teaching profession as worth while and challenging, and our teachers' colleges, consequently, are not likely to increase their enrolments. Unfortunately, these still seem to be the impressions that pupils are bound to carry away from many classrooms today. Far too many teachers still seem to regard their positions as routine jobs, to be worked at from eight or nine o'clock in the morning to three o'clock or thereabouts in the afternoon, primarily through the study-and-recite method, and still seem to make little or no attempt to get really to know their pupils and to meet their needs. Too many administrators, also, seem still to allow themselves to be hamstrung by the routine jobs of administration and, therefore, unable to provide their teachers with inspiring leadership.

In many localities, too, even in many where teaching is actually of high quality, inadequate methods of reporting and of providing other forms of publicity concerning what goes on in the classroom are largely responsible for the apathy or hostility of the local citizens toward their schools and their consequent unwillingness to dig deeper into their pockets to support education. Many parents in such communities still fail to understand why

the schools are different from schools in "the good old days" when they themselves were students, and the teachers and administrators are not helping them sufficiently to understand. It is on the local level especially, and particularly in the more or less immediate relations between teachers and administrators on the one hand and parents on the other, that such understanding can best be brought about—through explanations of the objectives of modern education and descriptions of the learning experiences for attaining the aims, through parent-teacher conferences, visits of parents to the classroom, demonstration lessons, talks to the PTA, school bulletins, frequent articles in local newspapers, and similar methods.

Parents in local communities need thus to be given more information concerning their schools, but the leaders of education of the nation also require greater and more exact information than they at present possess in order that they may more effectively attack, on a nation-wide basis, the problems of classroom and teacher shortage and related problems. In his report for the Office of Education for the fiscal year 1952 (published, in part, under the title "Crucial National Problems in Education" in the issue of *School Life* for April, 1953), former U.S. Commissioner of Education Earl J. McGrath indicated that a beginning has now been made toward gathering such information:

It has, of course, been generally known that thousands of communities . . . suffer from a lack of school facilities and are there-

fore seriously handicapped in providing even the basic education required for citizenship.

But no authoritative and comprehensive factual information of the total requirement on a nation-wide basis has been established. The Eighty-first Congress wisely provided for a national survey of the need for new schoolhouse facilities in Title I of Public Law 815. Through this legislation the Office of Education, authorized to conduct such a national study in co-operation with the several states, launched this project in fiscal 1951.

The first phase of the survey of schoolhouse facilities was completed in 1952. . . . At that time the information gathered from twenty-five states made it possible to estimate the situation on a national scale with reasonable accuracy.

And at several points further on in the report he bespeaks the need for similar national surveys concerning related matters:

A nation-wide study is urgently needed: To determine state by state such things as the extent of the [teacher] shortage, the rates at which teachers leave the profession for various reasons, where teachers come from, what their salaries are in various types of communities and teaching positions, and why more young people are not entering the profession. Complete and reliable information of this sort will be required before the present disturbing situation can be corrected.

. . . the evidence to support the claim that schools do a better job today than they did some years ago is scattered and not easily accessible. To shed light on the present controversy a body of authoritative information, scientific data, gathered by competent professional workers, is therefore urgently needed. . . . A national enterprise should be undertaken, enlisting the efforts of school men, scholars, and laymen, to bring together research information on the teaching of the basic disciplines and other subjects such as physical education, social studies, the sci-

ences, music, and what these contribute to the lives of our young people.

In 1947, Benjamin Fine made a personal survey of the schools of the country and published his findings in a series of articles in the *New York Times* and later in the book already mentioned several times, *Our Children Are Cheated*. The fact that, to the writer's knowledge, his book still represents the only thing we have even remotely resembling a comprehensive survey of the nation's schools emphasizes the urgent need for the kinds of surveys asked for by former Commissioner McGrath.

The foregoing cannot, of course, even pretend to be a complete treatment of the problem of classroom and teacher shortages. Such important possible remedies as federal aid to education (probably inevitably necessary), single-salary schedules, reorganization of school districts, and teacher tenure and retirement laws have not so much as been mentioned, nor will they be discussed at this point.

Before leaving the subject, however, it might be well to speak of one concrete suggestion for the more or less immediate future. For the next decade at least, we shall undoubtedly continue to have shortages of both teachers and classrooms, and consequently many of our classrooms will be even more overcrowded than before. It seems true that too many of the teachers in such classrooms are too willing to advance the fact of such overcrowding as an excuse for poor teaching—an excuse which exempts them, they believe, from any attempt

to do a better job. But it is also true that they, and many other teachers in such situations who do make such attempts, receive little help from their superiors and from other experts on teaching methods. Much of the research on methods seems to involve the assumption, explicit or implicit, that the average class size in the classrooms where the methods are to be used is twenty-five to thirty. Is there not, therefore, some justice in the complaint frequently heard from teachers with classes numbering forty-five to sixty that they would like to use the recommended teaching methods but that they cannot do so, or at least do not know how they can do so? Does it not seem advisable, therefore, that teachers who have already discovered and have been practicing truly successful methods of teaching in overcrowded classrooms should publicize their methods as widely as possible in the national education periodicals? Furthermore, should not researchers on methods of instruction concentrate on discovering methods which are especially adaptable for working with large groups?

THE DEVIL'S WORKSHOP?

SOME EVIDENCE, admittedly fragmentary and inconclusive, suggests that in this day of TV, movies, radios, and similar recreational facilities, an outstanding characteristic of today's teen-agers, at least in one large metropolitan area, may be—of all things—boredom! The *Chicago Daily News* devoted a series of three

items, in the issues of August 19–21, to this phenomenon. Several reporters, touring various sections of the city on those evenings, found altogether “thousands and thousands of youngsters,” both boys and girls, gathered in idle though restless gangs on street corners. When asked by the reporters what they were doing, a number of them replied that there was “‘Nowhere to go, nothing to do.’”

Evidently stung by the implied criticism, a park-district official in one of the neighborhoods was quoted in the paper on the second night as retorting that, in his area at least, recreational programs were offered each evening both in several park fieldhouses and in a high school kept open under the “lighted schoolhouse program.” He added that these programs are patronized by many young people but that those in the gangs were “too ‘sophisticated—in a hard, advanced way—to take part in organized recreation or park-district activities.’” The opinion of Patrolman Stuart Buletty, a juvenile officer in the district, however, was not so severe. He thought there was nothing vicious about the youths and said that they “cause little serious trouble beyond the nuisance of gathering in ‘gangs.’”

However unscientific such evidence may be, it was added to about a week later in the August 29 issue of the same paper—this time, however, in the “Amusements” section rather than on a news page. This time a popular orchestra leader was said to be “deeply troubled by the strange be-

havior of young people" and was quoted as follows:

They just stand around on a dance floor, if they work up enough interest to get out on the floor at all. What's the matter with them? They used to respond to the novelties and showy arrangements. They used to turn their happy faces toward the bandstand and let the rhythms take hold of them. . . .

The young people don't care anymore. They're blase, dreary, and downright rude at times. You can have them. Give me the happy middle-aged and married folks who come here regularly. They know how to enjoy themselves.

One man's opinion, undoubtedly, and certain to be rejected in any court of scientific procedure as unreliable evidence. But does it not suggest with some probability that perhaps not enough attention is being given in our schools to the often-mentioned objective of "the worthy use of leisure time"?

YOUTH SPEAKS UP

TO CONTINUE for a few more lines along a hardly scientific path: The opinion of educators that more men teachers are needed in the elementary schools seems not at all to be shared by some of the boys in those schools. At any rate, four out of the five boys, ages ten to thirteen, questioned by the *Chicago Daily Tribune's* "Inquiring Camera Girl" (that paper's variant of the inquiring reporter) on September 7 and quoted in her column the next morning, said that they preferred women teachers. All four of them thought that men teachers would be stricter. The one boy who preferred men as teachers was a pupil

of a military school. Peculiarly enough his reason for his preference was that men were stricter.

Again, the sample was inadequate, but the views expressed are not without interest.

EDUCATION BY TELEVISION AND 3-D

TV channels for education The Federal Communications Commission in April of 1952 reserved 242 television channels

for possible use by educational institutions and invited applications for those channels by such institutions before June 2, 1953. The Joint Committee on Educational Television (an organization representing seven educational groups, including the National Education Association and the American Council on Education, and financed by a Ford Foundation fund), in its "Reports on Educational Television" dated June 4 on this year, reports that, as of that date, forty-five applications for reserved channels had been filed with the FCC—the last two, filed June 2, being those of Chicago and of Detroit.

The significance of the June 2, 1953, date line, however, has apparently been widely misinterpreted. A "Public Notice" bulletin of the FCC, dated May 11, 1953, with an accompanying statement by the late Senator Tobey concerning the same matter, corrects this misinterpretation as follows:

Inquiries before the Federal Communications Commission indicate a belief that the reservation of television channels for non-commercial educational use will expire on June 2, 1953.

This is *not* the case; such reservations continue indefinitely. . . .

The significance of the June 2 date is that the Commission will thereafter give consideration to any petitions it may receive to make changes in channel assignments in individual localities. This applies to commercial as well as educational assignments. . . . In such cases, the Commission will afford all interested parties—including appropriate educational organizations which may be involved—an opportunity to participate and be heard.

New Ford Foundation program The TV-Radio Workshop of the Ford Foundation announced that on Sunday, September 13, it would start a twenty-six-week series of programs, to be televised on Sundays from 3:30 to 4 P.M. (New York time), which would "be directed primarily to girls and boys between the ages of eight and sixteen years." The new program, called "Excursion," has Burgess Meredith as its master of ceremonies and is "designed to appeal to young people and to give them stimulating views of the worlds of literature, science, sports, art, the theater, career-building, government, and other fields." The first show was an adaptation of an incident from *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*, with Thomas Mitchell and Eddie Albert, and with Sugar Ray Robinson, the retired welterweight and middleweight champion, making his debut as an actor in the part of Jim. The second program presented former President Truman in a discussion of government. Plans for later programs include such features as a survey of life

on our planet from earliest times to the atomic age; two musical comedies especially prepared for young people, one by Alec Wilder; down on the farm, with an account of farming as a career; and plays by new and established American writers.

The Ford Foundation is guaranteeing program costs of the series, and the National Broadcasting Company is supplying station time. It is hoped that eventually the program will attract commercial sponsors, as did "Omnibus," the program sponsored last season by the Foundation. In any event, "control of the content of the series will remain with the Workshop as producer." Viewers who remember with pleasure the excellent programs presented on "Omnibus" will welcome this addition to TV channels.

Unusual effect of 3-D To the blessings of 3-D motion pictures (considered by some persons to be not wholly unmixed), add one more!

Dr. T. R. Murroughs, associate professor of psychology at the Northern Illinois College of Optometry, is quoted in the September issue of "Vision for Youth 1953" (a release of the American Optometric Association) as declaring that a child with certain types of eye defect may not be aware of them until he attends 3-D pictures. Since the child will "fail to see those depth effects which his friends enjoy," he will realize that his eyes are defective and be prompted to seek proper attention. Dr. Murroughs

states that many children throughout the country are already receiving visual care as a result of such an experience.

It is to be doubted, however, that advertisements for 3-D will feature any such blurb as "See 3-D and save your eyes!"

A STATEMENT OF OBJECTIVES

ALL curriculum-workers—and that means especially all elementary-school teachers, should welcome (indeed, with cheers!) a new publication of the Russell Sage Foundation entitled *Elementary School Objectives*. In the opinion of the writer, the book, in its comprehensiveness, its degree of specificity, and its indubitable authority, presents far and away the best of all statements of objectives for this level. The volume is the outgrowth of initial explorations undertaken by the Educational Testing Service "for more and better means of assessing the results of instruction" in the elementary schools. In the Foreword to the book, Henry Chauncey, the president of that organization, writes as follows:

Though other groups and individuals have specified some of the outcomes sought by the schools, or have described the subject matter and activities of schools, there has long been a need for a comprehensive and authoritative survey of elementary schooling, with primary emphasis on behavioral goals. Such a survey should identify desirable attainable objectives so that they may be susceptible to measurement, evaluation, and critical philosophical analysis. . . .

It soon became apparent that before more tests were added to the thousands al-

ready available a general consensus of educators and other citizens should be reached on what the elementary schools are and should be attempting to do. Only with such a consensus as a guide can educational measurement be applied with meaning and practical value.

The interest and financial aid of the Russell Sage Foundation were enlisted, and the United States Office of Education and the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association also "found the project to hold much promise for education; so they, too, became partners in the enterprise."

The actual setting-down of the objectives was undertaken, at the invitation of the four sponsoring agencies, by a group of thirteen outstanding educators making up the Committee of Consultants. Working independently (for reasons explained in the report), they based their recommendations on evidence of all pertinent research. For evaluation in the light of practical experience and for possible additions, the recommendations were then submitted to a Committee of Critics, a group of ten teachers and supervisors known for their successful work in the classroom. Finally, the Survey Committee, a third group of educators and some members of the public, were intrusted with the "responsibility for interpreting the recommendations and giving structure to the report of them." Merely reading the names of the members of these three committees inspires confidence in the final results of their work; for the names are those of men and

women who have long been widely known for the brilliance and soundness of their work in education.

For the sake of greater unity, objectivity, and detachment, it was decided by the Survey Committee that the final report should be prepared and written by one person, rather than by any of the groups involved. The person chosen was Dr. Nolan C. Kearney, assistant superintendent for curriculum and research in the public schools of St. Paul, Minnesota.

The objectives set forth in the book are divided into nine broad areas of elementary learning: (1) physical development, health, and body care; (2) individual social and emotional development; (3) ethical behavior, standards, values; (4) social relations; (5) the social world; (6) the physical world; (7) aesthetic development; (8) communication; and (9) quantitative relationships. Each of these areas in turn is divided into five separate subdivisions: (a) knowledge and understanding, (b) skill and competence, (c) attitude and interest, (d) action pattern, and (e) determining conditions. Finally, under each of these five subdivisions objectives are listed for each of three elementary levels: the primary, the intermediate, and the upper-grade.

The statement of objectives is not, and of course could not be, an ideal one. Indeed, Dr. Kearney devotes several continued pages to a discussion of its limitations and mentions them frequently on other pages. Its chief defect, perhaps, in the eyes of most readers will be that, as he states,

"added together, the goals probably become somewhat too difficult for average children." He states further that most of the consultants and critics themselves felt such to be the case when their separate lists were combined. In the opinion of this editorial writer, however, this objection does not loom as important as it may seem at first sight; goals are something to be aimed at, and one should not stop shooting just because some arrows miss the bull's-eye or even fall short of the target. Certainly, if all or even most of the children in a classroom attained all the objectives of the curriculum perfectly, the implication would be that the goals had been set too low. Moreover, the charge frequently made, perhaps with some justification, that education in our schools is pitched at a level of mediocrity carries with it the same implication.

Be that as it may, an actual reading, even of excerpts selected at random, of the objectives set forth in the "Outline of Recommended Goals" will reveal their many virtues: their consistent expression in terms of overt, observable behavior; their unusual freedom from educational jargon; their high degree of specificity, remarkable in view of their comprehensiveness; their conformity with democratic educational philosophy; their "broad scope and rich variety." It is to be hoped, however, that no one obtaining the book will be content with reading only excerpts from or even the entire list of objectives alone. A neglect of the opening sections of

the book, particularly of that entitled "Characteristics of the Recommended Goals," would inevitably lead to some misinterpretations of the goals themselves and to a seeing of defects where no defects exist. The book should be read from cover to cover (it is surprisingly brief). Persons so reading it, including those interested in levels of education other than the elementary, will find the experience highly valuable.

The book may be obtained for \$3.00 a copy from the Russell Sage Foundation, New York 22.

FROM THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY

THE following item can hardly be classified as news, since it concerns the Emperor Frederick II, who died in 1250. It is related by the chronicler, Salimbene, as quoted in *The Portable Medieval Reader*, a publication of the Viking Press. Despite the fact that the events related occurred over seven hundred years ago, this editorial writer welcomes the opportunity to aid in making them more widely known because they involved what certainly must have been one of the earliest of all educational experiments and especially because the concluding sentences of the item illustrate in a particularly striking manner that what children need above all else in their rearing and education is affection:

His second folly was that he wanted to find out what kind of speech and what manner of speech children would have when they grew up, if they spoke to no one beforehand. So he bade foster-mothers and nurses to suckle the children, to bathe and wash them, but in *no way to prattle with them* or to

speak to them, for he wanted to learn whether they would speak the Hebrew language, which was the oldest, or Greek, or Latin, or Arabic, or perhaps the language of their parents, of whom they had been born. But he labored in vain, because the children all died. For they could not live without the petting and the joyful faces and loving words of their foster-mothers.

PUPILS' CONSIDERATENESS AND TEACHER APPROVAL

WHETHER PROMPTED by real affection for children or merely by a practical "how to win friends and influence people" attitude, the teacher's indication of approval or disapproval of pupils should not be portioned out in a casual fashion. Children, even when they seem "not to care," pay far more attention to, and are more seriously affected by, such marks of approval or disapproval than we often realize. Such is one of the most important conclusions reached by a group of eleven teachers in York Elementary School, of Springfield, Missouri, as a result of a very interesting action-research study of considerateness and aggression of children in their classes. The study is reported by Arthur W. Foshay in the issue for April 8, 1953, of the *Educational Research Bulletin* of the College of Education of Ohio State University.

Tabulating the pupils' responses to three open questions on "Things that make me feel important," "What I like about myself," and "What I don't like about myself," the teachers were surprised at the per cents that involved such indications of teacher approval as marks, being allowed to

help the teacher, being called on or praised by the teacher, and so forth:

The prominence of this type of response made it obvious that overt teacher approval of individual children was, to say the least, a factor of real significance in the self-evaluation of these children, and, consequently, in all probability an important factor in their evaluation and acceptance of one another.

On the basis of this and similar evidence obtained in the study, the teachers draw the following conclusion:

It is our moral responsibility, since this is the situation, to keep the classroom prestige system as wide open as possible. The clear implication for us as teachers is that we neither give nor withhold indications of our own approval of the children's behavior on an accidental basis. . . . We are obliged to give all our children equal opportunities to rise in the class prestige system, so far as we have influence on it. This means that we shall overlook no opportunities to praise children for work that is praiseworthy, and to call the attention of the class to good work wherever it appears.

At least several times during their careers, most teachers have been given a sudden and unexpected glimpse into a kind of private world of children—a world in which much goes on, most of it by no means bad, without the teacher's having been at all aware of it. In an early stage of the study in the Springfield school, the teachers learned that in the children's relations with one another many forms of inconsiderate behavior were apparently occurring about which they, the teachers, had not previously been conscious. They had expected that in the lower grades most cases of inconsiderate be-

havior would fall under the classification of overt physical aggression and that in the upper grades it would more frequently take the form of overt verbal aggression. The children's responses, however, to an open question about "Things that make me want to strike back" differed surprisingly from these expectations. The investigators thereupon followed this up with another question, "How I know people don't like me." Although most of the responses did fall into the categories of overt physical or verbal aggression, a substantial per cent of them did not. The report of the study comments:

The inconsiderateness that the children described in the comments which we classified under "participation in organized games," "avoidance," "treatment of my belongings," and "facial expression" appears very rarely in our observations of the children's behavior. Perhaps, had we been looking for this kind of "inconsiderate" behavior, we might have reported more of it in our observational material. However, the fact that we did not report it means that we did not see it and that we were not in the habit of looking for it.

Among the examples of such behavior cited in the report are such items as "refusal to play with one," "snubbing people," "hiding something," "refusal to look you in the eye," and "sticking tongue out." The teachers do not indicate, unless by implication, a belief that such behaviors similarly go relatively unobserved by teachers in other schools, but it seems not unlikely that such is often the case.

GEORGE K. T. MCGUIRE

WHO'S WHO FOR OCTOBER

*Authors of
news notes
and articles*

The news notes in this issue have been prepared by GEORGE K. T. MCGUIRE, assistant to the director of the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago. PAUL R. PIERCE, assistant superintendent in charge of instruction and guidance for the Chicago public schools, describes the first semester's experiences in introducing to parents of preschool children and to parent leaders a preschool curriculum based on the major functions of living. KATHLEEN B. HESTER, professor of education at Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan, presents the results of a study of the problems which confront teachers of reading in light of recent changes in school population, in school philosophy, and in the definition of reading. CARL F. FISCHER, associate professor of physical education at the University of Connecticut, discusses physical-education needs of elementary-school pupils, ways in which some schools meet these needs, and questions that arise in the process. RACHEL SUTTON, professor of education at the University of Georgia, tells how vocabulary-building games and exercises improved the reading skills of third-grade children in one elementary school. JOSEPH H. TAYLOR, a classroom teacher at the Riverton Public School, Riverton, New Jersey, delves beneath the surface of our school programs, pointing out that sometimes overemphasis on developing tool skills in children results in

underemphasis on other skills and content, and that sometimes the pleasing of parents and patrons is not to the best interest of the children. The selected references in the various subject fields have been prepared by the following persons: WILLIAM S. GRAY, professor of education at the University of Chicago; DORA V. SMITH, professor of education at the University of Minnesota; KEITH KAVANAUGH, research assistant for the Midwest Administration Center located at the University of Chicago; WILLIAM H. GRAY, professor of psychology at Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas; KENNETH J. REHAGE, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago, and WILLIAM R. SINCOCK, research assistant for the Midwest Administration Center located at the University of Chicago; EDNA E. EISEN, professor of geography at Kent State University, Kent, Ohio; and KENNETH D. NORBERG, associate professor of education and coordinator of audio-visual services at Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California.

Reviewers DAVID CRAWFORD, superintendent of schools at Rochelle, Illinois.

A. W. VANDERMEER, professor of education, Pennsylvania State College. ADELINE KULIG, speech correctionist, Rich Township High School, Park Forest, Illinois, and Bremen Community High School, Midlothian, Illinois.

A SEMESTER'S TRYOUT OF THE PRESCHOOL CURRICULUM

PAUL R. PIERCE

Chicago Public Schools



THE PRESCHOOL CURRICULUM, which grew out of practice with essential activities of the major functions of living forming the basis of the curriculum program of the Chicago public schools, was given its initial tryout during the spring semester of 1952 by the parent-teachers'-association units of the system's nine elementary pilot schools. This article describes our first semester's experience in introducing this new development in curriculum-making to parent leaders and the parents of preschool children.

SETTING FOR THE TRYOUT PROCEDURE

The original steps in the development of Chicago's preschool program, described in a previous article,¹ may be briefly stated. The activities of the nine major functions of living which delineate the scope of the curriculum of the Chicago school system are listed under six stages of pupil growth ranging from "infancy" to "adulthood." When the kindergarten-primary curriculum committee, utilizing the activities of the "early childhood" stage,

were developing teaching guides, parent members frequently pointed out the advantages that would result if the lists of activities for the infancy period were made available to parents of preschool children. The activities of infancy were accordingly woven together in easy, readable discourse under the nine major functions, "Protecting Life and Health," "Using the Tools of Communication," "Enjoying Wholesome Leisure," "Building Human Relationships," "Practicing American Citizenship," "Satisfying Spiritual and Aesthetic Needs," "Improving Family Living," "Developing Economic Competence," and "Meeting Vocational Responsibilities," with brief accompanying instructions for the guidance of the parents.

Well before the work of the subcommittee assigned to organize the lists of infancy activities into booklet form was completed, it was realized that the booklet² would in reality be a preschool curriculum, having continuity and articulation with the regular

¹ Paul R. Pierce, "Chicago's Preschool Curriculum," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (November, 1952), 138-43.

² "Preschool Curriculum for Parents' Use." Prepared by the Subcommittee of the Kindergarten-Primary Committee. Chicago: Division of Curriculum Development, Chicago Public Schools, 1952. Pp. 14 (mimeographed).

school curriculum, and that parents would be the logical persons to use the booklet and teach the curriculum.

INTRODUCING THE PRESCHOOL PROGRAM TO PARENTS

Since Chicago schools have no staff for guiding pre-kindergarten activities and since these activities take place almost exclusively in the home, it was decided that the preschool-curriculum subcommittee should work directly through the PTA leaders of the pilot school, utilizing the principal as adviser. The project was undertaken on an experimental basis, not having yet been adopted by the board of education or the parent-teachers' association. As a first step, the writer, acting as chairman of the subcommittee, held meetings with the local PTA president, the principal, and the PTA member of the curriculum committee in each of the nine pilot schools, when he introduced the idea of the preschool program.

Initial reaction of parent leaders.—At these preliminary meetings the preschool curriculum booklets were presented and discussed, and ways were considered of introducing the program to parents of preschool children in the school district. At each meeting the consensus was that the preschool materials were of marked significance to the child and his subsequent school program, and that distributing this material involved action particularly suited to the pilot-school situation. But it was also the feeling that the project should not be undertaken un-

less it was acceptable to the parent-teachers' association, the principal, and the curriculum committee of the pilot school.

One of the first problems raised by parent leaders was how the preschool booklet might be placed promptly in the hands of all parents having children of five years or younger. A suggestion at first finding favor was to ask the city birth-record bureau to issue a copy of the booklet with each birth certificate. This, and other suggestions involving a direct distribution to parents, such as making a canvass of the district and delivering copies door-to-door or sending them through the mails, were abandoned as the need for preliminary orientation of the parents was pointed out by the principals and PTA presidents.

Procedures adopted for approaching parents.—The procedures eventually gaining acceptance for finding and approaching parents of infant children, while varying somewhat with each pilot school, had certain points in common. The PTA leaders gave special heed in this matter to the counsel of the principal, in recognition both of his knowledge of the school's curriculum, to which the preschool program is related, and of the staff's established relations with parents. Since the probability was strong that many preschool children would be found in the homes of parents of kindergarten children and since the school already had working contacts with these parents, most of the PTA leaders and the principals agreed that this group consti-

tuted the most promising initial source of "clients" for the new program. In most cases where this procedure was selected, it was agreed that the principal should act for the parent-teachers' association in making the initial presentation and explanations in a meeting of the parents of kindergarten children.

NATURE OF REPORTS ON PILOT PROJECTS

While no formal reports on preschool activities were requested from pilot schools or their parent-teachers' associations, contacts were maintained throughout the semester with principals and PTA leaders by the writer and other members of the curriculum subcommittee. Accounts of their activities were received from the parent groups through conferences at the schools, telephone conversations, and written memorandums.

Most of the activities reported dealt with study and discussion of the content of the preschool curriculum booklet, planning of ways to enlist and instruct parents of preschool children in study and use of the booklet, and in assignment of the booklet to selected parents for evaluating its usefulness for their guidance of their children of preschool age.

TYPES OF PARENT REACTION REPORTED

Reports of work on the preschool curriculum received throughout the semester contained both favorable and unfavorable comment. From the first,

the idea of the preschool curriculum, the dedication of the course to use by parents in the homes, and the placing of responsibility for management of the preschool work in the hands of parent organizations, met with very general commendation. No unfavorable comment was reported respecting these items.

Unfavorable criticism centered chiefly in the content and style of the booklet outlining the preschool curriculum. Since the aim was to provide parents with a listing of the activities of infancy which they could easily understand, which they would regard as authoritative, and which they could use effectively, these criticisms were gratefully received. The members of the curriculum subcommittee realized that only by knowing promptly of the gaps between their own thinking and the parents' thinking could a usable preschool curriculum be developed. The chief types of criticism offered by parent groups are enumerated in subsequent paragraphs.

Parents seek assistance in care of child.—The criticism most frequently voiced was that directions were not provided on how parents could get the child to carry out the activities listed. Simply listing the activities, under broad social objectives such as the major functions, the parents felt, was not enough. Specialists in child psychology and parent education to whom some of the groups referred our booklet wrote to the curriculum subcommittee to much the same effect. Some of the parents expressed the

opinion that our material should be more like that of certain publications by physicians and psychologists.

This trend in thinking of parents made the members of the curriculum subcommittee realize that they had not sufficiently oriented parent leaders in the nature and purposes of the preschool curriculum, and particularly to the fact that it was an extension of the school program rather than a treatise on child care, granting that a relation exists between the two. The semester's experience shows that a clearer understanding is needed by parents of the fact that the preschool curriculum consists of activities for the period of infancy that have been derived from the nine major functions forming the basis of the school's curriculum and also of the fact that these activities consequently have continuity and direct relation to the school's program. The further fact that the experiences of the preschool curriculum are designed to prepare the pupil for the school's curriculum should likewise be made clear to leaders and members of parents' organizations. Parents should thus be enabled to sense the true relation of guidance in uniquely educational activities to the solution of problems of child care.

Parents' concern about age-level achievements.—Although the directions to parents contained in the introductory pages of the preschool booklet specifically reminded parents that each child is an individual and therefore has his own rate and pattern of growth, it was felt that indicating

month and year levels of infancy at which children normally can perform certain activities had a frustrating effect upon those parents whose children had not developed certain abilities, such as talking or walking, at the years or months indicated in the preschool outline for such activities. While some parent leaders suggested omitting all references to age levels, most believed that including with these references such terms as "usually" or in "many cases" would meet the need. One parent suggested that successive developmental levels within the infancy period be used instead of age levels to indicate when the parent should expect, and guide children to carry out, the activities designated in the preschool booklet.

Should "ideal" activities be included?—A thread of criticism persisting through the parents' comment dealt with the seeming impossibility of young children's attaining many of the experiences cited and with the impracticality of parents' guiding them successfully to do so. Examples cited as too idealistic included "eating his food without bolting," "refraining from tantrums and accepting punishment gracefully," "learning to co-operate with members of his family," and "responding with proper conduct at religious services." It should be here recorded that the same issue had arisen in the original committees which analyzed the major functions of living. Nevertheless, parents, teachers, pupil representatives, and lay leaders on those committees decided,

in agreement with established curriculum studies, that all activities essential to successful living at the various growth levels should be included in the general curriculum.

Increased stress on child development desired.—Parent groups generally approved the booklet's descriptions of child development but were critical of the limitations of space devoted to it. They felt that it should provide information to help them solve their "many perplexing problems." They believed that such material should include data on the emotional, as well as the mental and physical, characteristics of the very young child, with reasons for his reverting and "backsliding" from seemingly assured points of advance.

Request that aims be more fully stated.—Owing to the desire of the curriculum subcommittee to list the activities prerequisite to the school's curriculum in a manner that would not look formidable and a size that would appear usable to parents, only general aims were included. However, there were a number of requests that aims be stated more specifically. One parent group suggested, for example, that the booklet be divided into two sections, the first stating the aims of the preschool program and the second, the methods of attaining these aims.

Illustrative materials wanted.—Concrete examples throughout the course to assist the parents in guiding children to carry out the preschool activities were requested by virtually all the PTA groups. It was advised that the illustrations be taken from actual pro-

cedures used by parents. One group cited the following method of one of the mothers to develop economic concepts:

We have set aside one shelf in the playroom where we keep "store" equipment. I save clean cardboard containers—boxes or cartons from macaroni, tea, cake flour, butter, eggs, cocoa, toothpaste, toothbrushes, and candy—and the children use these for their store. They have a small counter (an old box), a telephone, a delivery wagon (used only when there are enough "clerks" to offer this service), a cash register, and play money.

They spend many hours carrying out the duties of a storekeeper—arranging the stock, taking phone orders, calling to collect old bills, soothing irate customers who complain that the delivery is too slow or that something has been damaged. They learn the names of products and get some idea of their relative values. Indirectly, they learn to plan menus and buy the necessary items for each meal. They learn to handle money and to make change. And they learn that a businessman's life is not always an easy one.

Desire for information regarding equipment.—Two PTA units made a point of the failure of the booklet to list the types of equipment for the homes which would aid children in performing preschool learning activities. It was recommended that equipment suggested should be simple and inexpensive, including kinds of paper and crayons, blunt scissors, and equipment for games and handicrafts, and that space be devoted to explanations of how certain kinds of equipment might be built at home.

Additional comments.—Among further recommendations made by parents from the pilot schools for improv-

ing the preschool-curriculum outlines were the following:

1. That the materials be presented chiefly in outline form rather than in regular textual form.
2. That references and bibliographies for further reading be included.
3. That, in view of the imitative tendencies of young children, it be adequately stressed that parents are continually serving as examples.
4. That specific treatment be given to parents' supervision of television and radio programs.
5. That a paragraph be included on the "lost child," suggesting on whom parents should call for help when children are lost in stores, parks, and the neighborhood.
6. That activities involving table manners be so selected that artificiality is avoided.
7. That suitable prayers for children be provided to assist parents not familiar with these.
8. That emphasis be placed on the necessity for supervising activities involving pets and animals casually encountered by children.

Not all the comments on content and form of the booklet, as has been previously stated, were of a critical nature. There were numerous favorable comments, many in direct opposition to criticisms cited above, regarding various sections of the preschool outlines. However, since the main purpose of the pilot-school program is to discover areas calling for improvement, only comments indicating trouble spots are here recorded.

IMPLICATIONS OF A SEMESTER'S

EXPERIMENTATION

The first semester of experience in nine pilot-school situations resulted in

outcomes of marked significance to, and implications for, preschool-curriculum practice, which are described in subsequent paragraphs.

School authorities should take prompt steps to capitalize on the interest and wholehearted effort shown by parents from pilot schools to use and to improve the preschool program. The schools should work hand in hand with organizations of parents to make parents' guidance of preschool activities a true extension of the school's curriculum that will enrich children's living and make parents' duties more purposeful and pleasant.

Parents should be oriented in the basic nature and purposes of a curriculum, and they should understand that the preschool curriculum, since it is based on the same major functions of living, consists of activities having direct continuity with those of the school's educational program. The schools need to develop among the parents the further understanding that the preschool curriculum is not so much a means of solving parents' problems as a positive program experienced by the pupil which will prepare him for future success in the school. Parents should, however, be led to realize that this positive program for the child will make their work in rearing him increasingly purposeful and satisfying. Compensation for the efforts that the school expends in thus acquainting parents with the objectives of the preschool curriculum should be found in their improved under-

standing of, and co-operation in, the school's educational program.

Clearly indicated is a need of re-writing the preschool materials to take account of the rephrasing, organizational changes, and additions suggested by parents and thus make it much more than the simple description of activities of infancy which was originally planned. The main theme of the improvements suggested, analysis shows, is to give parents, in addition to the broad objectives and activities already offered, specific aids to assist them in guiding children to carry out the activities. The evidence indicates that the curriculum subcommittee, in its desire not to infringe on parents' freedom of action, apparently erred on the side of not providing them with sufficient direction. The situation resembles the desire of most teachers for outlines and a course of study. In reality, the parents appear to be seeking a course-of-study type booklet having specific objectives, illustrative procedures, reading references, and other teaching aids.

To meet parental apprehensions reportedly caused by the preschool booklet's indication of normal age levels for performance of certain activities, the revised preschool outlines must provide more comprehensive descriptions of the successive stages of mental, emotional, and physical development through which the child passes during the period of infancy. It is possible that such descriptions should rather fully replace references to age levels in the regular text, with

the latter being given clarifying treatment in a separate section. Flexibility for parents in selecting activities and in allowing for differences in quality of children's performance, together with assurances that inclusion of high-grade activities suggests goals toward which to work rather than perfection in performance, should likewise be clearly indicated.

Both the schools and parents, try-out experience indicates, need to devote increased attention to co-operative study of the potentialities and actualities of conducting the preschool program. Parents' organizations should be made cognizant of the advantages that they are virtually certain to derive, in the forms of assistance to parents of preschool children and mediums for associational interest and growth, by organizing study groups to produce supplementing pre-curriculum materials. This is especially the case since a usable curriculum booklet could not cover in detail all the important aspects of parent guidance and since work on supplementing materials might form one of the most important aspects of parent orientation in the preschool program. A promising development in this connection is the fact that the curriculum subcommittee has already received enthusiastic response from parent leaders to a proposal for inaugurating a seminar of representatives of parents from the pilot schools, which would be serviced by central-office curriculum specialists, psychologists, physicians, and nurse-teachers. Exchanges of

views and practices, parents feel, would result in encouragement and stimulation of groups of pilot-school parents as well as improvement of preschool procedures.

Outcomes of the first semester's work indicate advantages in enlisting parents' associations to assume responsibility for directing the preschool program and in having the schools provide the parents' groups with curriculum materials and counseling services respecting the program. It would undoubtedly be possible for the principal of an elementary school to develop a school-sponsored organization of parents and guide them in preschool curriculum work, but the principle of utilizing established community organizations for community work should undoubtedly be observed in all

situations where such organizations exist. The fact that each pilot-school committee has a subcommittee on the preschool curriculum for the single major function of living for which the pilot school is responsible should prove a balancing medium between the PTA unit and the school in the Chicago situation. Experience tends to show that direction of the preschool program is a realistic grass-roots project for associations of parents as well as for the schools, and that it is in accord with the principle that the curriculum should be custom-made for the individual school and its community. With continuance of this democratic partnership of the parent organization and the schools, a forecast of definite gains appears justified for Chicago's preschool program.

CLASSROOM PROBLEMS IN THE TEACHING OF READING

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THE IMPORTANCE of reading in the development of children has been emphasized during the past decade. Teachers recognize that the child must learn to read successfully if he is to understand himself, his family, his friends, and the environment in which he lives; if he is to satisfy his needs, gain personal happiness, and fit into his rightful place in society. They feel the urgency of helping each child develop according to the pattern of his growth. Yet teachers who would most effectively guide the reading growth of children often feel inadequate to meet this challenge successfully. They encounter many difficult and complex issues in teaching every child to read to the limits of his ability.

THE PROBLEM

In an attempt to discover why teachers feel inadequate in reaching this goal, a study was made of the problems with which they are confronted when teaching children to read in today's schools. A short questionnaire was distributed to approximately eight hundred elementary-school educators in the writer's classes over a period of five years. The group included teachers from one-room rural,

consolidated rural, small-town, and large-city schools; helping teachers, supervisors, principals, and superintendents of city and rural areas. Each educator was asked to reply to three questions:

1. What changes in today's schools do you feel are responsible for your problems in reading instruction?
2. What problems present the greatest difficulty to you in teaching reading?
3. With which of the problems do you need the most help?

FINDINGS

The educators listed three significant factors which they felt were responsible for their problems in reading instruction.

The first factor is the ever increasing burden of responsibility placed upon our schools. Each year compulsory education laws are strengthened. Teachers are confronted with the task of teaching every child of every parent. Pupils who fail to respond to the instruction no longer can be dropped from the class rolls. The schools have accepted the responsibility of providing educational opportunities adjusted to the needs and capacities of all children.

The second factor is the change in

philosophy resulting from studies of child growth and development. Until recent years emphasis was placed upon having each child meet the reading standards set up for his particular grade. For example, Bobby, a fourth-grader who read at second-grade level, was given remedial instruction in an effort to bring him up to the grade standard. Today, emphasis is placed upon the child rather than upon the reading standards. Reading instruction that will produce desirable changes in the behavior of children is stressed. Each child learns in accordance with his ability, needs, and interests.

The third factor is the change in the definition of reading. At the turn of the century a good reader was a person who could read aloud in an eloquent fashion. After the First World War, the pupil who could get the thought from the printed page read successfully. Today, with all our conflicting forces in society, not only must a child be able to read orally and to get the thought from the printed page, but also he must be able to make intelligent interpretations, to read critically, to evaluate, and to form valid conclusions from the facts given. He must be able to protect himself from the dangers of propaganda if he is to be a worthy member of society.

The problems listed in reply to the second question, "What problems present the greatest difficulty to you in teaching reading?" fell into five major categories: (1) reading readiness, (2) basic reading instruction, (3) re-

medial reading, (4) reading in the content fields, and (5) evaluation. Some indication of the urgency of these problems may be gleaned from the number of educators reporting problems in each of these categories. This information is summarized in Table 1.

In reply to the third question, "With which of the problems do you need the most help?" a total of 225 different problems in the teaching of reading was mentioned. These prob-

TABLE 1
SUMMARY OF PROBLEMS IN
READING INSTRUCTION

READING PROBLEMS	EDUCATORS REPORTING	
	Num-ber	Per Cent
Basic instruction in the class-room.....	621	77.6
Remedial reading.....	295	36.9
Readiness for reading.....	103	12.9
Reading content subjects....	50	6.3
Evaluation of pupil growth..	36	4.5

lems fell into the five major categories indicated in Table 1, and in Table 2 they are listed under the appropriate headings.

SOME CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The survey supports the opinion expressed that teachers and administrators have a wide range of unsolved problems in the teaching of reading. Moreover, the nature of the questions, according to an examination of the problems on a yearly basis, indicates

a changing philosophy in the teaching of reading during the five-year period.

The first significant factor discernible in the data is the relative emphasis placed upon the various problems. There appears to be a growing concern about the teaching of reading within the regular classroom. More than three-fourths of the educators felt a real need for more help in handling the classroom situations so that every child can learn to read to the best of his ability.

A second situation which is apparent is a decreasing interest in remedial reading, as such. Little more than one-third of the educators expressed interest or concern with this area. Examination of the questionnaires on a yearly basis indicates that teachers are tending more and more to include questions about reading difficulties in the area of classroom instruction in reading rather than in a special area of remedial reading. Responsibility for the diagnosis, remediation, and pre-

TABLE 2
PROBLEMS IN THE TEACHING OF READING WITH WHICH EDUCATORS
REPORTED THEY NEED HELP

Problem	Number of Educators Reporting	Problem	Number of Educators Reporting
Basic instruction:		Readiness (<i>continued</i>):	
How to develop reading skills.	200	How to organize the classes.	7
How to improve classroom instruction in reading.	144	How to use parental help.	4
How to provide for individual differences.	95	How to evaluate progress.	3
How to use a basic textbook series most effectively.	78	How to enlist community support.	1
How to set up an effective reading program.	65	How to correlate the work of the kindergarten with that of Grade I.	1
How to determine reading levels.	14	Reading in the content fields:	
How to help parents understand present-day methods.	12	Methods to be used to teach the content subjects.	15
How to evaluate pupil progress.	10	Relationship of spelling to reading.	13
How to help teachers develop a better understanding of reading goals and problems.	3	How to teach social studies when the children are unable to read the textbooks.	10
Remedial reading:		Relationship of a language program to reading.	9
How to overcome specific reading difficulties.	105	How to help children develop the ability to read story problems in arithmetic more effectively.	2
How to handle remedial reading in the classroom.	71	How to present literature most effectively.	1
How to determine the causes of reading difficulties.	62	Evaluation:	
How to find suitable materials.	48	How to build a functional testing program for a school.	19
How to prevent reading difficulties.	7	How to analyze and interpret test results.	14
How to organize a remedial program.	2	How to evaluate informally the children's progress.	1
Readiness:		How to use the results of evaluative procedures most effectively.	1
How to determine readiness at each grade level.	53	What to use as a basis for promotional policies.	1
What constitutes a good readiness program.	34		

vention of reading problems is being accepted by the regular classroom teacher.

A third conclusion to be drawn from the data is that interest in reading readiness is extending to reading instruction at every level. The small number of educators reporting a need for assistance in this area may indicate that the problem of developing readiness is less complex than the areas mentioned above or that teachers are still unaware of what reading readiness is and the necessity for its development.

A fourth conclusion which seems justified is the relative unconcern for the teaching of reading in the content subjects. Only 6 per cent of the problems raised in this study were concerned with the relation of reading to other areas of the curriculum.

A fifth and final conclusion which may be drawn from the responses is that pupil evaluation holds a position of minor importance among the classroom problems in reading instruction. Only 4.5 per cent of the educators raised questions in this area. An examination of the questions reveals the greatest interest in formal testing programs and in analysis and interpretation of such test results. There is little emphasis upon evaluative procedures other than upon the need for more information about different types of tests. It appears from the evidence that educators are still thinking large-

ly in terms of achieving specific standards in reading in their own school situations rather than how the reading program is helping to develop the whole child. The meagerness of the questions listed in the area of reading in content subjects and in the area of evaluation evidences need for additional study to determine whether fewer teachers have difficult problems in these areas or whether they are failing to consider the difficulties encountered here as problems in reading instruction.

The problems listed in the study indicate a real need for an interpretation of the philosophy of teaching reading into actual classroom practices. There is a definite gap between the theories to which teachers give lip service so readily and the application of these theories in their schools. Many educators are genuinely concerned about this gap. Some expressed a need for an interpretation of the theories of child growth and development into classroom practices in simple, readable language. The presentation of each theory, they stated, should include descriptions of actual cases and classroom procedures so that teachers may guide more effectively the reading growth of each child. One faculty group, in requesting a consultant for a reading practicum, very aptly stated the problem when they said, "We need someone to help us bring our 'do-how' up to our 'know-how.'"

TRENDS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

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THE CHILD is taught best as a member of a group, in which such factors as the individual differences in rate of growth and development, the necessity of having a program that will follow the natural progression of reliving man's evolution, and the provision of a healthful and safe environment are recognized. The child's physical needs at the elementary-school period are the development of the big muscles of the body to maintain good posture, and the development of body skills through planned, purposeful activities. These factors must be carefully considered, and in addition, attention must be given to the child's need for education in being an accepted part of a group, with opportunity for leadership, creativeness, and co-operation. In the words of Sara M. Johnson, "One of the most desirable ways of teaching democracy to boys and girls at the elementary-school level is through a planned program of physical education....[Among other values] a social consciousness can be developed that will enable the child to accept his place in the group as leader or co-operating follower."¹ Because the elementary-school years

are so important, more should be done to provide adequate programs of physical education.

BUILDING THE PROGRAM

The program for the children of elementary-school ages must be based on the children's needs, close attention being paid to the continuous process of growth that takes place during this span of years. The elementary-school child abounds with energy and seeks an outlet through vigorous activities. Games, "stunts," rhythms—these become the serious objectives of the child's periods of activity. To provide the necessary incentives, safety measures, social contacts, physical skills, and organic power, a program must of necessity be built around certain guiding principles in order to be educationally sound and physically possible.

The program-builder must recognize the physical capacities and potentialities of young children at each age and capitalize on this knowledge to bring along the development of big

¹ Sara M. Johnson, "The Physical Education Program in the Elementary School," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XX (June, 1949), 380.

muscles in strength and power. All children are not interested in, or ready for, the same activities, but they are inherently interested in playing. Therefore, a broad and varied program should be planned to meet the needs of all children. The program-builder should also realize that the child who understands what he is doing and why will not only learn more quickly but will enjoy the activity more. Children progress individually, some slowly, some at a more rapid pace; all are vital, alive, interested, dynamic organisms seeking direction in their development.

The guidance of this program of physical activity is not the job of the elementary school alone; it is also the responsibility of the parents while the children are at home and the recreation leaders after school. This article, however, is concerned only with that phase of the program handled during school hours—a program that includes the physical-education period, noon hours, recess periods, and supervised after-school activities.

The program must be constructed along practical lines and be based on sound physiological, psychological, and sociological principles, with health and safety precautions. From a physiological standpoint, the curriculum should provide ample opportunities for a wide range of movement in a variety of activities, preferably taught out-of-doors. But the program should be selected according to the psychological as well as the physiological age, and progressive skills should be

planned wherever possible, with emphasis on natural play activities. To take account of sociological aims, the program should provide a selection of activities that can be adapted to leisure time, that contribute to training for citizenship, and that can be directed toward character-training. Health and safety measures include such precautions as an adequate medical examination before allowing participation in vigorous physical activities, careful observation after illness or injury for effects of activity, safety measures in regard to facilities and encouragement of individual safety-consciousness, and provision for a trained first-aid attendant.

The program must take into consideration individual growth variations, the short interest span of children, the need for big-muscle development, the inherent need for activity, and the adjustments to be made at different age levels. Charts which "help give a picture of activities that seem to suit the changing needs of children" have been compiled by the Athletic Institute.²

TIME ALLOTMENT DURING THE SCHOOL DAY

The elementary-school day is made up of classroom activities, recess periods, noon-hour activities, and, in some schools, after-school play. Since chil-

² *Physical Education for Children of Elementary School Age*. Report of the Conference on Physical Education for Children of Elementary School Age, Washington, D.C., January, 1951. Chicago: Athletic Institute (209 South State Street), 1951.

dren of elementary-school age crave activity but tire easily, the physical-education program should be spaced throughout the day, with short periods of supervised play for learning and recreation. To set a certain amount of time as a desirable minimum would, in the writer's opinion, set up another obstacle most schools could not surmount. It is better to suggest that all recess periods (both inside and outside the school building), the noon hour, and brief, informal, after-school periods be supervised and organized into play activities every day; that, where facilities and time are available, gymnasium periods be scheduled; and that, when staff is available, classes be conducted at least once a week by a special teacher in physical education.

A recent study³ found that 96 per cent of the schools reporting claimed to allot an average of 31 minutes per day for physical education, 50 per cent claiming an allotment of 31-39 minutes daily. It was not noted whether recess periods were counted in this time. If both morning and afternoon recess periods and half of the noon hour were used, a total of one hour a day could be gained easily. Additional time would be added if special gymnasium classes were scheduled and an after-school program was planned and

supervised. Time allotment need not be a problem in the elementary school if the administrator and the teachers utilize the periods already set aside for recreation.

WHO SHALL TEACH PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

"The classroom teacher provides opportunity for his children to unify all of their experiences, including those in physical education. In most elementary schools, the classroom teacher must assume major responsibility for physical education."⁴ This is substantiated by the Committee's study,⁵ which notes that 59 per cent of the schools in the study reported the classroom teacher as solely responsible for the physical education in all the grades; 20 per cent reported the classroom teacher solely responsible in the primary grades; and 20 per cent reported they used special teachers for all grades.

The trend shows both the classroom teacher and the special teacher to be in charge of most of the physical education in the elementary grades. It is apparent that the classroom teacher must be a part of this program because of his unique position as constant companion to the children throughout the school day. The good teacher of today is a teacher of children, one who recognizes and feels responsible for the all-round develop-

³ Robert Hager, Helen Hartwig, Lawrence Houston, Dorothy La Salle, Simon McNeely, and Frances Wayman (chairman), "Report of the President's [AAHPER] Committee on Interschool Competition in the Elementary School," *Journal of the American Association of Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXI (May, 1950), 279-80, 313-14.

⁴ *Physical Education for Children of Elementary School Age*, p. 32.

⁵ Robert Hager and Others, *op. cit.*, p. 279.

ment of the child—hence, the teacher's importance in physical education. The special teacher has his place also, as co-ordinator of the whole program, teaching the children; planning for, and teaching the program to, the classroom teacher; and supervising the program. With the influx of men and women trained in physical education who are now taking the emergency program in elementary education and are teaching elementary-school grades in the present teacher shortage, many Connecticut schools will soon promote physical-education programs in elementary schools where none existed before.

INTRAMURAL AND INTERSCHOOL COMPETITION

The question of engaging in intramural and interschool competition at the elementary-school level is a very controversial subject. Practices are, at present, in a state of flux.

Several years ago a questionnaire study was made of 113 counties, small towns, cities, and metropolitan areas.⁶ Returns were received from 47 states. Each questionnaire was counted equally, although some represented more than one school in a system. The present article, in discussing the program for elementary-school grades, is considering the six-year organization. To interpret properly the statistics of the study used as a basis of this report, it must be understood that the majority of the elementary schools in

the United States include Grades VII–VIII and that the study goes beyond Grade VI in its findings. The relevant findings are summarized below.

In answer to the question, "Is a broad intramural program conducted after school?" 64 schools responding (57 per cent) reported no intramural program; 30 schools (26 per cent) claimed that they had such a program; and the remainder reported limited programs.

When asked whether their schools engaged in interschool competition, 67 schools (59 per cent) said "No," and 46 schools (41 per cent) answered "Yes." Competition was mostly for boys, although some schools sponsored girls' competition. Activities of interschool competition ranged from marbles to football, with the greatest frequency falling to basketball, followed by softball and track. In 20 schools the teams were coached by the physical-education teacher; in 17 schools, by the classroom teacher; and in four schools, by college students. When asked what they considered the trend to be in interschool competition on the elementary level, those respondents most definite in their views were opposed to competition. Forty-eight (42 per cent) said the trend was toward competition, although 20 of these opposed such competition. Thirty-seven (33 per cent) thought the trend was away from competition, and 28 (25 per cent) omitted the answer to this question.

Thus, nation-wide intramural programs of competition were not found

⁶ *Ibid.*

in the majority of elementary schools. While only 41 per cent of schools engaged in interschool competition, this is still much too large a sponsorship of a program fraught with many dangers to youth of this age level.

This study brought out objectionable factors involved in elementary-school competition. No special medical examination was reported except in three schools. Of the forty-six schools reporting interschool games, seven played out-of-town games, traveling up to sixty miles; while thirty-nine played neighboring schools within a radius of 1-5 miles. Twenty-five played their games after school; thirteen played on Saturdays; five played during school hours; and three played at night. The significance of the inadequate medical examination, the distances traveled, the Saturday games with their spectator appeal, and the night games needs no further comment to educators who understand the child's needs during this period of rapid growth.

Many educators, including specialists in physical education, believe that there should be no interscholastic competition in elementary and junior high schools. The following groups have gone on record favoring no competition below the senior high school: the Western Intercollegiate Conference, 1949; the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1950; the American Medical Association, 1945; and the Society of State Directors of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1949.⁷

There are, however, other leaders in the profession who feel that a limited amount of intramural and even more extramural (playday type) competition under proper leadership and with proper medical checkup would not be harmful. Social contacts made during these formative years are as valuable as those made later and should not be overlooked.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Although improving steadily in administration, teaching, facilities, and philosophy, physical education has a long pull ahead before the general public and educators become aware of the need for its regular, frequent inclusion in the elementary-school program. A comparison of published reports and personal observations indicate that most schools are sponsoring some kind of physical-education program. In more than half of the schools, especially those in cities and larger school districts, a special supervisor-teacher averages weekly half-hour visits, conducting classes in the gymnasium, which most of the schools possess. In addition to the visits of the special teacher, the classroom teacher takes charge of physical education during the recess, lunch, and special periods daily, spending an average of twenty minutes in the afternoon.

The author made a local survey of sixty-five elementary-school teachers representing schools in a thirty-mile

⁷ Harry A. Scott, *Competitive Sports in Schools and Colleges*, p. 480. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1951.

radius of metropolitan Springfield, Massachusetts, and found that the activities compared favorably with the types of activities suggested in the national conference report, *Physical Education for Children of Elementary School Age*, with lead-up skills and tumbling less frequent than other activities mentioned. This fact is explained when the amount of preparation necessary to teach these skills is considered and it is noted that more than half of the teachers surveyed reported that their undergraduate training in physical education was inadequate.

The following facts seem to be favorable for the future of physical-education programs in the elementary

school: (1) The public and educators are becoming increasingly conscious of the needs of youth during this period of growth. (2) An increased building program is in progress, which is providing for playing fields and gymnasiums and larger amounts of equipment. (3) More men are entering the teaching field at the elementary level. There is, of course, a real danger associated with the increase in the number of men engaged in elementary-school teaching, namely, that their enthusiasm for competitive activities, combined with pressures from junior and senior high schools, may bring down to the elementary level an undue emphasis on competition and on the development of winning teams.

THE EFFECT OF VOCABULARY-BUILDING ON READING SKILLS

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THE HYPOTHESIS that intensive study of words at the third-grade level improves reading ability was investigated in the study reported in this article.

SUBJECTS OF STUDY AND PROCEDURES

The study covered a period of four months, January through April. A group of thirty-six third-grade children at the University of Georgia Elementary School participated in the study. In November, 1951, they were given the California Test of Mental Maturity, the Metropolitan Achievement Test, the Durrell-Sullivan Reading Capacity Test, and the Durrell-Sullivan Reading Achievement Test, Form A.

The standardized tests, other information collected by the school, routine health checks, and observations of the teacher and investigator furnished data for a better understanding of each child. The group was below average in intelligence—almost 60 per cent of the pupils were found to have intelligence quotients of less than 90. Twenty-two children had poor work habits: they did not listen well nor did they follow directions easily and they had not learned to

work independently. There were no serious physical defects among the children, although five were undernourished and six had eye defects which were later corrected. None of the children had hearing difficulties.

The school is a county school to which children come by bus from widely scattered areas. Because heavy rains in December created transportation difficulties, the intensive study of words began with the group in January, 1952.

In May, 1952, the Durrell-Sullivan Reading Achievement Test, Form B, was given. Scores on Forms A and B were compared.

VOCABULARY-BUILDING

Word exercises were prepared from the material in the pupils' textbooks. The pupils were made more word-conscious by having them build individual lists based on their activities in and out of school, on their conversation, and on their reading. The exercises and lists constituted practice material in which children had to choose between words similar in form on the basis of meaning clues. Efforts were made to eliminate troublesome confusions, such as *went* for *what*,

where for *when*, tell for *toll*, and the like, which usually persist later than Grade III. The children in this group were taught by exercises and games to scrutinize word forms with care and to use structural and phonetic analysis in attacking new words.

Matching words with phrases.—A period was set aside each morning for children to talk and to share stories, reports of events, and the like with the group. In the beginning, about half the class took part in the discussions. During the sharing period and the reading and library hours, the teacher made a note of favorite stories and books. In a few weeks it was obvious that the majority of the class showed an interest in science materials. Several children who did not read well in first-grade readers and had little to contribute during discussion periods learned to share easy science stories with the group. The better readers went to the library and looked up information on subjects about which they were curious.

Since the group showed interest in discussions based on science, stories with a science background, and reports of science experiments, the teacher prepared matching vocabulary exercises consisting of 288 words taken from a variety of science readers on first-, second-, and third-grade levels. The words were arranged into 24 exercises of 12 words each. The definitions for the words were taken from the Thorndike Century Junior Dictionary and Webster's Elementary Dictionary. The following words and

definitions are an example of the exercises.

Place in the blank space after each word the number of the description in the second column which tells what the word is.

- | | |
|--------------|---|
| boil..... | 1. Large American thrush with a reddish breast |
| weather..... | 2. Condition of the air, such as warm, cold, wet, dry |
| worm..... | 3. Bubble up and give off steam |
| robin..... | 4. Small, thin animal which crawls along |

Building individual word lists.—Pupils were encouraged to share stories with the group. Some children preferred to tell stories, others to show pictures. New words were constantly introduced and written on the board. In one story this sentence was read, "Brother Bear had an enormous mouth." The children were asked what the word *enormous* meant. One child said "ugly"; another, "big." The teacher showed the children how to find the word in the dictionary, then she wrote the definition on the board. Later, the same word was repeated in other stories.

A chart of new words was placed on the bulletin board. During the day the new words encountered were listed on the chart. Even the poor readers learned to recognize most of these words. When a word was learned, the children added it to their individual

lists.
Using contextual clues.—During this study an effort was made to help children derive meanings from context. Pupils were encouraged to bring in

words which they found in story-books. They helped each other derive meanings of these words. Definitions were written simply, and sentences were given to illustrate meaning. The children learned to recognize new words and to use them in different ways.

During the reading period children were asked to find certain types of words, such as all the names of the animals, numbers, fruits, and flowers. They were encouraged to find synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms. The children were given paragraphs to read, with instructions to find words that mean the same as other words in the sentence, for example, words that mean "quitting," "to hurt," "pretty," "small." The children were also asked to find descriptive words and phrases, for example, words that describe the "dog," the "house," the "boy," and the "teacher."

Reading directions and signs.—Emphasis was placed on the reading of directions, signals, advertisements, menus, headlines, tables of contents, addresses of letters, library cards, and book titles as the children came across them. In addition, the pupils planned trips for the purpose of reading signs, posters, advertisements, and directions. When they returned, they talked about the signs they saw. The teacher listed the words on the board as the children remembered them:

stop
air circus
airport
airplane
Standard Oil
taxi

Jefferson
grocery
shop
Veteran Cab
radio
café

Children brought cocoons, frogs, sea shells, moss, and other objects to the class and labeled them. They also put labels on their own lockers and supplies.

The teacher frequently prepared written materials for the pupils to help them recognize words and understand meanings. Problems in arithmetic were written out; written directions were given for playing games, taking tests, making articles, mixing paints, and working in groups. Plans for the day, jobs of special committees, and announcements were written on the board. Important events or news, titles of interesting books, and names of movies to be seen were written up and placed where children could see and read about them. This treatment of written materials proved to be an incentive for the children to attempt to master new words.

Having fun with word games.—Word games were played during free time. The following are a few among many which were favorites.

"SURPRISE"

Word cards are placed face down in the chart-holder. Each child may have a turn to take a word-card "surprise." If he does not know the word which is his surprise, he must put the card back (after the teacher helps him to learn the word).

"BALL GAME"

Each child is given a word card. He stands behind his chair and puts his word card on the chair. One of the children bounces a ball to the first child. As the latter catches the ball, he says his word. If correct, the child picks up his word card. If not, the teacher helps him. At the end of one round, all players exchange word cards.

"RINGS"

Words are arranged in this manner:

huge—enormous, toy, slide, run

The children are instructed to place a ring around the word that means the same as the underlined word.

SUMMARY

In this study an effort was made to appraise improvement in reading skill, which resulted from an emphasis on vocabulary-building, through comparisons with standard norms furnished by the Durrell-Sullivan Reading Achievement Test, Forms A and B. A comparison of test results is presented in Table 1. The average gain (.70) of the group of children which participated in the study exceeded the normal rate of improvement by three months. The gain was found to be statistically significant.

In November, when the first test was given, thirty-six children participated. Only twenty-five of that number remained in the school to take the final test in May. The loss of eleven pupils is not unusual. A segment of the school population is transient. The range of improvement was from *-0.8 to 3.7. Five children lost in reading achievement, three showed no improvement, eight showed less than normal improvement, and nine showed normal improvement or better.*

The results of the matching-vocabulary tests given in May showed marked improvement when compared

with results of the first tests given in November. The number of words in each child's individual word list kept during the study ranged from 9 to 142. Word games proved to be helpful to pupils in learning new words. Twenty-

TABLE 1

PERFORMANCE ON STANDARDIZED TESTS BY A GROUP OF THIRD-GRADE CHILDREN BEFORE AND AFTER VOCABULARY-BUILDING EXERCISES

Measure	Range	Mean
Intelligence quotient on California Test of Mental Maturity (36 pupils).....	58-110	86.5
Grade equivalents on Metropolitan Achievement Test (November, 36 pupils)		
All subjects.....	2.3-5.9	3.07
Reading.....	2.2-5.5	3.17
Grade equivalent on Durrell-Sullivan Reading Capacity Test (November, 36 pupils)....	1.3-4.1	2.78
Grade equivalent on Durrell-Sullivan Reading Achievement Test:		
Form A (November, 36 pupils).....	1.9-4.3	2.75
Form B (May, 25 pupils).....	1.9-6.2	3.18
Gain for 25 pupils taking both tests.....	- 8-3.7	0.70

five children learned to use the dictionary successfully. The number of books read by individual children during the four months ranged from six to fifty-four. The results of the vocabulary-building exercises might have been even more encouraging if more of the children in the study had been of average intelligence.

THE EXPRESSED AND THE ACTUAL AIMS OF A SCHOOL PROGRAM

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AIMS of a school program need constant study and interpretation. Too often, ignorance and misunderstanding of the real purposes and objectives of the school's work with children lead people into complacent satisfaction with schools as they are. How many times one hears remarks that are indicative of such an apparently contented attitude: "It's a wonderful little school," or "Aren't we fortunate to have such a fine little institution?" or "My, the children seem so happy." The persons making such remarks are right, of course, but they do not see under the surface; they do not see what is really being done to influence the children.

Again, people will say, "This has been a wonderful program, I don't see how the children can do so well," or "The children are so well poised; I never could have done half so well at their age." Once more they are right, but such persons little realize the price in terms of social relations and emotional adjustments that may have been paid by teachers and children to produce an excellent show for the public's entertainment.

EMPHASIS ON TOOL SUBJECTS

Too frequently, it appears, the real aims of a school, whether stated or unstated,¹ are out of keeping with what is known about children's needs and patterns of growth. Take one school that I know, which I will call by the fictitious name "Oakville School." As I see it, two real aims (one stated and one unstated) stand out in the Oakville program: (1) "to develop . . . individuals who are secure in their tool subjects"² and (2) to please the parents and patrons of the school.

No one would quarrel with the aim of teaching skills; but, in practice, the emphasis at Oakville on teaching three tool subjects (reading, spelling, and arithmetic) results in too little stress on other skills (writing, listening, and speaking, for example) and on the content subjects (social studies, science, and literature). Indicative of this situation are the great importance placed

¹ For the distinction between stated and unstated aims, see Hollis L. Caswell, *Education in the Elementary School*, pp. 74-76. New York: American Book Co., 1942.

² This is quoted from the current "Oakville School" catalogue.

on the results of standardized achievement tests in reading, spelling, and arithmetic and the virtual omission of any attempt really to evaluate the teaching of other tool subjects and the content subjects mentioned. A complete battery of achievement tests is given every March, but no one is concerned about the results of the tests in social studies, science, or literature, "because," as the principal put it, "we don't teach that way, anyhow."

That is to say, these content tests do not measure *what* is taught at Oakville, or at any other school probably. Certainly we want to teach skills, but they represent chiefly the bones of the educational structure, and surely we also want to provide meat—by teaching science, literature, and social studies as richly and as broadly and as deeply as we can.

TEACHING OF CONTENT SUBJECTS

The teaching of the content subjects at Oakville leaves much to be desired. Science-teaching is spotty. Literature is better taught, but the requirement of a specified number of written book reports for every child in Grades IV–VI tends to stress quantity rather than quality in the choice of reading, and, for some children, rather puts a damper on reading for pleasure.

There have been some excellent social-studies projects. Scenes have been made, for instance, showing a southern cotton plantation, a model of the Acropolis, and a model of the riverfront area of a near-by large city. All these projects required searching for

authentic information, careful planning, and much self-sacrifice for the good of the group involved. On the whole, however, social studies are entirely too dominated by textbook and workbook content; this part of the program is altogether too limited in scope, and too little use is made of the richly available community resources.

NEGLECT OF EMOTIONAL AND PHYSICAL GROWTH

The tendency at Oakville is to over-emphasize mental development to the consequent neglect of emotional and physical growth. Trips that bear directly on social studies or science studies actually in progress are rare above Grade II. A wonderfully authentic collection of Colonial Americana is housed near by in the home of a friend of the school. A visit to see and hear about this material at first-hand was suggested to the teacher of fifth- and sixth-grade social studies, but other activities apparently crowded out an experience that might have been extremely valuable to the children, who spend considerable time *reading* about Colonial life in America.

The bus trip to the city for the second-grade children who wanted to learn about the river front was well conceived, and the children learned much from the trip that they transferred to their model. Sad to say, however, the children were not permitted to leave the bus once during the entire trip, which lasted two hours or more. A tour of a ship or a pier might have been arranged, or at least the children could have walked along the street for

a block or two to stretch their active legs and make a little noise that would not reverberate through the bus.

PLEASING PARENTS

The second real aim mentioned above—pleasing the parents and patrons of the school—often seems to disrupt the unity and validity of the program. The Christmas play and the spring fete at Oakville seem designed to meet this aim. There are certainly values in helping children to sing well, to dance, to speak clearly before an audience, or to work co-operatively with a group toward a common end, but such values are too often lost sight of in the last days of intensive rehearsing. At these two times of the year the entire life at Oakville comes to be dominated by the unswerving and apparently unquestioned purpose of driving through to a finished production that will equal or surpass any similar extravaganza of the past.

But finally the day of the great entertainment arrives, the children rise to the occasion beautifully (they *always* do), and the adult visitors who see only the finished product think it is simply marvelous. A few months later, the whole process is repeated, with what appears to be a very superficial evaluation of the most recent performance.

Here is a second example of the working of this aim to please the parents. (This analysis is based somewhat on a "hunch," but I think it is warranted by the facts.) For some years the school lunchroom has been a noisy

place in which to eat on school days. The noise is due partly to the location of the kitchen at one end of the room and partly to the large number of children who must eat at a given time. The installation of an acoustical ceiling is recognized to be an important step in eliminating the noise. Another problem has centered on the main driveway to the school, where buses and parents' cars often create a traffic jam which involves some danger to children using the playground.

When money became available, the driveway was altered to eliminate the traffic problem and somewhat lessen the danger to children. But the lunchroom is just as noisy as ever. The adults, who visit the school rather briefly and who rarely use the lunchroom on school days, were the chief beneficiaries of the new driveway; whereas the children and teachers, who use the driveway but little and the lunchroom a lot every day, still have to suffer the noise during meal-times. In my judgment, it seems that the wishes of some adults took precedence over the social and emotional well-being of the teachers and children.

The illustration of the "Oakville School" may serve to point up the danger of carrying on a school program simply because it appears, on the surface, to be going smoothly. Continuous evaluation and appropriate program revision are essential if a school is to keep abreast of the real and varied needs of its children and community.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

II. THE SUBJECT FIELDS



THIS LIST of references is the second in an annual series of three lists relating to instruction at the elementary-school level. The preceding list, appearing in the September, 1953, number of the *Elementary School Journal*, contains items on the curriculum, methods of teaching and study, and supervision. The present list and the next list in the series include references on these same major aspects of instruction, but the items are grouped by subject fields.

In this issue an additional aid for educational workers is supplied by a list of films given at the end of the lists of publications in the various subject fields.

READING

WILLIAM S. GRAY

University of Chicago

424. ANDERSON, IRVING H. "Current Trends in the Teaching of Reading," *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, XXIV (January, 1953), 49-52.

Identifies and discusses eight trends in the teaching of reading that "enjoy the support of research work and of expert opinion."

425. ARTLEY, A. STERL. *Your Child Learns To Read*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1953. Pp. xvi+256.

Describes current procedures in teaching reading, explains the nature of recent changes in both content and methods, and considers at length the practices and issues about which parents have made most frequent inquiries.

426. BARBE, WALTER B. "High Interest, Low Ability Level Reading Materials," *Elementary English*, XXX (May, 1953), 281-84.

Emphasizes the importance of locating reading material of appropriate interest level for poor readers and discusses some of the requirements to be observed in preparing or selecting such materials.

427. BOND, GEORGE W. "Developing Study Skills in the Intermediate Grades," *Elementary English*, XXIX (November, 1952), 397-401, 413.

Emphasizes the importance of a high degree of efficiency in the use of reading as an aid to learning and offers constructive suggestions under two headings: "How to master a textbook assignment" and "How to take examinations."

428. BRICKMAN, WILLIAM W. "The Reading Process," *School and Society*, LXXVII (May 30, 1953), 341-46.

Refers briefly to the vigor with which reading problems are discussed today and reviews critically the trends and basic issues in teaching reading, as reported in twenty-six professional books and monographs published within the last three years.

429. DAHLBERG, CHARLES C., M.D.; ROSWELL, FLORENCE; and CHALL, JEANNE.

"Psychotherapeutic Principles as Applied to Remedial Reading," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (December, 1952), 211-20.

Considers that certain factors in a remedial situation "may become more intentional and thereby more constructive, through an application of certain psychotherapeutic principles."

430. DREIKURS, RUDOLPH, M.D. "Emotional Predispositions to Reading Difficulties," *National Association for Remedial Teaching News*, II (October, 1952), 1, 4.

Discusses ways in which the poor reader differs from the adjusted child, describes "some of the characteristic conflicts in children with reading difficulties," and points out related responsibilities of teachers.

431. EDSON, WILLIAM H.; BOND, GUY L.; and COOK, WALTER W. "Relationships between Visual Characteristics and Specific Silent Reading Abilities," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVI (February, 1953), 451-57.

Reports the results of a study to determine the relation, if any, between variations in ten measures of silent-reading skills and thirteen tests of visual characteristics in the case of 188 fourth-grade pupils.

432. EVANS, N. DEAN. "An Individualized Reading Program for the Elementary Teacher," *Elementary English*, XXX (May, 1953), 275-80.

Emphasizes the importance of a reading program that aids the child in recognizing the values and pleasures to be found in books, and describes some of the characteristics of an individualized reading program as a means of achieving desirable results.

433. FAY, LEO. "How Can We Develop Reading Study Skills for the Different Curriculum Areas?" *Reading Teacher*, VI (March, 1953), 12-18.

Discusses personal factors that influence effective study, identifies skills involved in reading-study activities, and considers ways of developing such skills.

434. FIGUREL, J. ALLEN. "What Recent Research Tells Us about Differentiated Instruction in Reading," *Reading Teacher*, VI (September, 1952), 27-33, 44.

Summarizes the results of related research under the headings "Grouping of children," "Remedial instruction," "Reading readiness," and "Related studies."

435. GAINSBERG, JOSEPH C. "Critical Reading Is Creative Reading and Needs Creative Teaching," *Reading Teacher*, VI (March, 1953), 19-26.

Emphasizes the fact that critical reading is essential at all grade levels, that critical reading is related to appreciation, and that a good reader recognizes and interprets many clues to meaning.

436. GATES, ARTHUR I. "An Appraisal of Current Procedures in Teaching Reading," *Modern Educational Problems*, pp. 77-86. Report of the Seventeenth Educational Conference, New York City, October 30-31, 1952, held under the auspices of the Educational Records Bureau and the American Council on Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1953.

Discusses critically "essential reading abilities and methods of developing them, both in typical classroom teaching and in remedial instruction."

437. GATES, ARTHUR I. *Teaching Reading*. Department of Classroom Teachers and the American Educational Research Association, What Research Says to the Teacher, No. 1. Washington: National Education Association, 1953. Pp. 34.

Summarizes and interprets for the classroom teacher the chief findings of research concerning the importance of reading, its

relations in the curriculum, factors that affect learning to read, basic principles, and techniques of teaching.

438. GRAY, WILLIAM S. (compiler and editor). *Improving Reading in All Curriculum Areas*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 76. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1952. Pp. 262.

Considers the nature of the problem in both elementary and high schools and the conditions, materials, and teaching procedures essential in adjusting reading activities to the varying needs of children and to the curriculum and in securing needed growth both in and through reading.

439. GRAY, WILLIAM S., and IVERSON, WILLIAM J. "What Should Be the Profession's Attitude toward Lay Criticism of the Schools? With Special Reference to Reading," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (September, 1952), 1-44.

Reviews evidence concerning the current status of reading instruction under such headings as: "Has reading been neglected?" "Is as much time allotted to reading as formerly?" "How well do pupils read?" "Are present levels of achievement high enough?" "How widely do pupils read?" "What is the quality of the material read?"

440. HARRIS, ALBERT J. "Motivating the Poor Reader," *Education*, LXXIII (May, 1953), 566-74.

Discusses the vicious cycle in which the poor reader is involved, the nature of the problems faced by such pupils in attempting to learn, and possible teaching procedures in enlisting their co-operation in improvement both in and through reading.

441. JACOBS, LELAND B. "Reading on Their Own Means Reading at Their Growing Edges," *Reading Teacher*, VI (March, 1953), 27-32.

Points out the need for books in the classroom, time for recreational reading, op-

portunity to share reading pleasures, the keeping of records of the amounts and kinds of materials read, and a wise balance between reading and the use of other mediums of pleasure and information.

442. LAZAR, MAY (editor). *The Retarded Reader in the Junior High School: A Guide for Supervisors and Teachers*. Bureau of Educational Research, Publication No. 31. Brooklyn: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1952. Pp. 126.

Shows the distribution of the reading-grade scores of 55,140 eighth-grade pupils on the Stanford Reading Test; summarizes responses of 88 junior high school principals concerning practices with retarded readers; presents results of a study of intellectual capacity and functioning of 80 junior high school retarded readers.

443. LINDAHL, HANNAH M., and KOCH, KATHARINE. "Bibliotherapy in the Middle Grades," *Elementary English*, XXIX (November, 1952), 390-96.

Emphasizes the fact that appropriate types of recreational reading may serve as an aid in providing mental and emotional therapy and presents brief, annotated bibliographies under such headings as "Adjusting to school," "Feelings of inferiority," and "Racial insecurity."

444. McCULLOUGH, CONSTANCE M. "What's Behind the Reading Score?" *Elementary English*, XXX (January, 1953), 1-7.

Presents an analysis of the responses of pupils on a reading list given in a sixth-grade class and the added educational insight which they revealed to their teacher.

445. MAZ, VERONICA. "Radio Listening, Televiewing, and Reading Habits of Pittsburgh Public High School Students," *Pittsburgh Schools*, XXVII (May-June, 1953), 156-72.

Summarizes 721 questionnaire replies providing data from 721 students in Grades IX A and XII A and 1,224 parents and guardians.

446. MULLALY, SISTER COLUMBA. *The Retention and Recognition of Information*. Educational Research Monographs, Vol. XVII, No. 3. Washington: Catholic University of America Press, 1952. Pp. xviii+46.

Analyzes the results of a pretest, test, and retest given at varying intervals to 1,278 pupils (in six schools) varying in ages from ten to fifteen years in Grades V-VIII to determine the retention of information learned from one reading of a prose passage.

447. *Reading: The Process of Making Discriminative Reactions*. Claremont College Reading Conference, Seventeenth Yearbook, Jointly Sponsored by Claremont College and Alpha Iota Chapter of Pi Lambda Theta. Claremont, California: Claremont College Curriculum Laboratory, 1952. Pp. 140.

Reports the proceedings of the conference based upon the thesis that reading is a process of making discriminative reactions with special emphasis upon discovery as a factor in reading, the discovery of one's self and of others, the personal factors affecting reading, and the application of the central theme to various educational purposes.

448. *The Road to Better Reading: Promising Practices in Reading for a K-12 Program, Based on the Summary of Conference-Clinics for the Readjustment of High School Education*. Albany, New York: Bureau of Secondary Curriculum Development, State Education Department, 1953. Pp. viii+112.

Considers essential aspects of a sound reading program throughout the grades and high school with special emphasis upon the selection of reading materials, methods of teaching, guidance in reading in the content fields use of visual aids, steps in organizing a twelve-year program.

449. ROBINSON, HELEN M. (editor). *Clinical Studies in Reading. II—With Emphasis*

on Vision Problems. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 77. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. x+90.

Reports a series of studies of reading made by staff members and graduate students doing work in the University of Chicago Reading Clinic. Also presents papers given by well-known authorities at a conference on vision and reading.

450. ROBINSON, HELEN M. "Some Poor Readers Have Emotional Problems," *Reading Teacher*, VI (May, 1953), 25-33.

Discusses early patterns of disturbances, emotional reactions among older retarded pupils, and therapeutic measures for emotionally disturbed poor readers.

451. SERRA, MARY C. "How To Develop Concepts and Their Verbal Representations," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (January, 1953), 275-85.

Summarizes the findings reported in thirty-four studies concerning the influence of direct experience on development of concepts and the enlargement of vocabulary.

452. SHARPE, JOSEPH FRANCIS. *The Retention of Meaningful Material*. Educational Research Monographs, Vol. XVI, No. 8. Washington: Catholic University of America Press, 1952. Pp. xii+66.

Reports study of retention of once-read meaningful material as revealed by a recall test administered to 2,492 children in Grades V-X.

453. SHELDON, WILLIAM D., and CUTTS, WARREN C. "Relation of Parents, Home, and Certain Developmental Characteristics to Children's Reading Ability. II," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (May, 1953), 517-21.

Summarizes the information supplied by parents in response to a questionnaire concerning ten characteristics of their children and compares findings with the status of the respective pupils in reading.

454. SHORES, J. HARLAN, and SAUPE, J. L. "Reading for Problem-solving in Science," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLIV (March, 1953), 149-58.

Analyzes the results of a "Test of Reading for Problem-solving in Science," given to 214 fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade pupils to test the hypothesis that "reading ability differentiates beyond the primary grades into somewhat specific abilities to read different kinds of material for different purposes."

455. STAUFFER, RUSSELL G. (compiler). *Reading for Meaning*. Proceedings of the Thirty-fourth Annual Education Conference, held at the University of Delaware, March 7 and 8, 1952. Newark, Delaware: Reading Clinic, School of Education, University of Delaware, 1952. Pp. x+78.

Considers the major problems faced in teaching pupils to read for meaning under such headings as "The role of the teacher," "Meaning and its development," "Improving comprehension," and "Critical reading."

456. STAUFFER, RUSSELL G. "Vital Teaching of Reading in the Intermediate Grades," *School and Society*, LXXVI (September 6, 1952), 145-48.

Considers the basic elements of vital teaching of reading under four headings: "Individual differences," "Ability grouping," "Grade-standard grouping," and "Problem-solving."

457. YOAKAM, GERALD A. (editor). *The Content, Selection, and Use of Children's Literature*. A Report of the Eighth Annual Conference on Reading, University of Pittsburgh, July 14-July 25, 1952. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1952. Pp. 190.

Emphasizes the fact that many forces are competing today for the attention of the child; considers the problems involved in cultivating interest in the reading of literature, in informing children of the sources

of good books, and in securing desirable materials for classroom use.

ENGLISH¹

DORA V. SMITH

University of Minnesota

458. ADAMS, BESS P. *About Books and Children*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1953. Pp. xvi+574.

Discusses informally the function of books in the lives of children and standards for selecting them. Has a copious bibliography.

459. ANDERSON, EDWARD L. "Grammar—What and How," *Elementary English*, XXX (April, 1953), 242-46.

Summarizes, with references to recent books in the field, the point of view of modern linguists toward what is "Standard English."

460. APPLGATE, MAUREE. *Everybody's Business—Our Children*. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Co., 1952. Pp. x+310.

Contains two delightful informal chapters (pp. 135-68, 169-200) on critical thinking and speech, writing, and listening at home and at school.

461. BEUST, NORA E., and BRODERICK, GERTRUDE G. *Books To Help Build International Understanding Together with a Supplement of Radio Recordings and Transcriptions Selected by Children and Young People with Special Reference to the United Nations*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1952 (revised). Pp. 32.

A book list for elementary grades, junior high school, and high school. Includes current publications and special subjects.

462. *Child Development and the Language Arts*. Prepared by a COMMITTEE OF

¹ See also Item 131 (Durland) in the list of selected references appearing in the March, 1953, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON RESEARCH IN ENGLISH, DAVID H. RUSSELL (chairman). Chicago: National Council of Teachers of English, 1952 and 1953. Pp. 52.

Presents a series of four distinguished reviews of research in four areas of child development and the language arts: sociological factors (John J. DeBoer); developmental characteristics of childhood (William F. Lodge); personality (David H. Russell); home and school practices (Virgil E. Herrick and Bernice E. Leary). The sections appeared in *Elementary English* in December, 1952, and in February, March, and October, 1953.

463. CLARK, WILLIS WINFIELD. "Evaluating School Achievement in Basic Skills in Relation to Mental Ability," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVI (November, 1952), 179-91.

Presents charts showing varied achievement in reading, mechanics of English, spelling, and total language score to be expected of children of different levels of intelligence in Grades I-XII according to results on California Achievement Tests and California Test of Mental Maturity.

464. CRADDOCK, MYRTLE. "Creative Dramatics for the 9's, 10's, 11's," *Childhood Education*, XXIX (January, 1953), 230-34.

Gives practical help for developing creative dramatics in the intermediate grades.

465. DAWE, HELEN CLEVELAND. "Environmental Influences on Language Growth," *Psychological Studies of Human Development*, pp. 239-44. Edited by R. G. KUHLEN and G. G. THOMPSON. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952.

Presents findings of a study revealing the effects upon children's intellectual growth of increased language ability through enriched cultural background.

466. DENVER PUBLIC SCHOOLS. *A Program in English: A Guide for Teaching the*

Language Arts, Kindergarten through Grade Twelve. Denver, Colorado: Denver Public Schools, 1953. Pp. viii+402.

Reports the new course of study in the language arts for the Denver public schools together with the basic principles underlying it.

467. DOLCH, E. W. "Vocabulary Development," *Elementary English*, XXX (February, 1953), 70-75.

Illustrates the underlying principles of the relation of experience to the development of new and old meanings and of new from old meanings.

468. DUNHAM, FRANKLIN, and LOWDERMILK, RONALD R. *Television in Our Schools*. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1952, No. 16. Pp. vi+38.

Discusses the importance of television for the schools, with illustrative programs from Philadelphia, Cincinnati, Rochester, and Minneapolis.

469. *Factors That Influence Language Growth*. Prepared by a COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON RESEARCH IN ENGLISH, DOROTHEA MCCARTHY (chairman). Chicago: National Council of Teachers of English, 1952 and 1953. Pp. 32.

Presents a complete discussion and bibliography of research findings on the following influences on language growth: personal equipment for language growth (Charlotte Wells); home influences (Dorothea McCarthy); school influences (Ruth G. Strickland); community influences (Muriel Crosby). Sections appeared in *Elementary English* from October, 1952, through January, 1953.

470. FRENKEL-BRUNSWIK, ELSE, and HAVEL, JOAN. "Prejudice in the Inter-views of Children: Attitudes toward Minority Groups," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXXXII (March, 1953), 91-136.

Presents unusual evidence of stereotypes of Mexican, Negro, Chinese, Japanese,

and Jew held by 475 children from three northern California schools. Useful for relation to literature and expression.

471. HAYAKAWA, S. "Recognizing Stereotypes as Substitutes for Thought," *Progressive Education*, XXX (March, 1953), 150-51.

Makes a plea for observation of reality in composition instead of reproducing literary stereotypes.

472. HULTZÉN, LEE S. "Pronunciation," *Elementary English*, XXIX (November, 1952), 402-6.

Argues against efforts to make all local dialects conform to a single standard through correction of so-called "errors."

473. KOENIG, FRANCES G. "Improving the Language Abilities of Bilingual Children," *Exceptional Children*, XIX (February, 1953), 183-86.

Presents effective methods of overcoming speech blocks among insecure children.

474. LEWIN, ILKA. "Communication between the Generations," *Child Study*, XXX (Spring, 1953), 24-26.

Analyzes social aspects of speaking and listening between children and adults.

475. LINDAHL, HANNAH M. "Bibliotherapy in the Middle Grades," *Elementary English*, XXIX (November, 1952), 390-96.

Gives a carefully annotated list of books which have helped intermediate-grade pupils solve their personal problems.

476. MEIGS, CORNELIA; NESBITT, ELIZABETH; EATON, ANNE; and VIGUERS, RUTH HILL. *A Critical History of Children's Literature*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1953. Pp. xxiv+624.

Summarizes in distinguished and critical fashion the history of books for children.

477. MINNESOTA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. *A Guide for Instruction in*

the Language Arts: Elementary School, Grades I-VIII. Curriculum Bulletin No. 8. St. Paul, Minnesota: Department of Education, 1952. Pp. 220.

Presents the language arts in relation to broad units of study and to all activities of the school, giving them a setting in child development.

478. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION and AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. *Aids in Selection of Materials for Children and Young People*. Washington: National Education Association, 1952. Pp. 8.

Furnishes sources of printed materials, recordings, and non-theatrical films for children and young people compiled by a joint committee of the National Education Association and the American Library Association.

479. OAKES, MERVIN E. "An Analysis of Children's Explanations," *Psychological Studies of Human Development*, pp. 222-26. Prepared by R. G. KUHLEN and G. G. THOMPSON. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952.

Reports findings of a study involving over 150 pupils in Fredonia, New York, to discover whether specific types of explanations or stages of thinking are characteristic of children of different age levels.

480. PARKE, MARGARET B. "Children's Ways of Talking and Listening," *Childhood Education*, XXIX (January, 1953), 223-30.

Gives an excellent view of the cumulative growth in language power in children and the situations in which they develop it in the elementary school.

481. PLOTZ, HELEN R. "Trash and Treasure in Children's Reading," *Child Study*, XXX (Spring, 1953), 21-23.

Makes an understanding analysis of the reasons for the popularity of certain series books for children.

482. ROBBINS, FLORENCE. *Educational Sociology: A Study in Child, Youth, School, and Community*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1953. Pp. xiv+530.

As a report of reading and research, presents a play in which specialists in children's literature, in research, and in child psychology answer questions asked by parents at a parent-teacher's association meeting concerning the effects of books, comics, radio, movies, and television on children.

483. ROCKEFELLER, KAY. "Live Drama for Children," *Child Study*, XXX (Spring, 1953), 18-20, 41-42.

Describes the work of the Children's Theater and the reasons for its appeal.

484. SAN DIEGO COUNTY SCHOOLS. *Oral and Written Expression*. San Diego, California: San Diego County Schools, 1952.

Defines philosophy, setting, and programs in the language arts in Grades IV-VIII in the schools of San Diego County.

485. SIEPMANN, CHARLES A. *Television and Education in the United States*. UNESCO Press, Film, and Radio in the World Today Series of Studies. New York: Columbia University Press, 1952. Pp. 132.

Furnishes research data on children's use of television and its effect on them, together with descriptions of representative school programs.

486. VANDEBERG, ETHYL. "Readiness for Language Arts Begins in the Kindergarten," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (April, 1953), 447-53.

Summarizes, with concrete examples, ways in which the kindergarten develops readiness for reading and language activities.

487. WADE, DURLYN E. "Sixth Graders Work toward Better Writing," *Elementary English*, XXX (April, 1953), 214-19.

Describes a scheme for motivating writing through relating it to the total educational program of the elementary school.

488. WITTY, PAUL. "Children's Reactions to T.V.—A Third Report," *Elementary English*, XXIX (December, 1952), 469-73.

Gives results of a third checkup on the time devoted to TV and the programs preferred by pupils, parents, and teachers in the schools of Calumet City, Skokie, Barrington, and Evanston, Illinois, in 1952 in contrast to those in Evanston only in 1950 and 1951.

SPELLING

KEITH KAVANAUGH

University of Chicago

489. BETENSLEY, BERTHA L. "All of the Fun for All of the Children," *Grade Teacher*, LXX (April, 1953), 28.

A device designed to retain the fun and competition of the spelldown without its early elimination of poor spellers.

490. BURROWS, ALVINA T. "Sequence of Learnings in Spelling," *Viewpoints on Educational Issues and Problems*, pp. 131-36. Thirty-ninth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. LIII, No. 2. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1952.

Suggests ways of helping children learn to spell by techniques which emphasize related phonics instruction in sequential arrangements. Also summarizes recent studies in elements of spelling ability and characteristics of maturing discrimination which indicate changing stimuli for sequential development.

491. CHAPPEL, BERNICE M. "A New Approach to Spelling," *Grade Teacher*, LXX (October, 1952), 8.

An experiment in graphic presentation and interpretation for second- and third-grade spelling. Suggests techniques for correlation of spelling with other subjects.

492. FIELDER, RUTH I. "Spelling—Teacher's Bugbear," *Instructor*, LXII (January, 1953), 50.

Summarizes an experiment in the teaching of fourth-grade spelling aimed at de-

- velopment of dictionary usage and correlation with language arts. Gives classroom aids and a one-week lesson plan and suggests further development possibilities.
493. FINCH, HARDY R. "Some Spelling Problems and Procedures," *English Journal*, XLII (April, 1953), 190-92.
Lists a number of techniques which can be used in classroom situations to stimulate students' interest in spelling improvement.
494. FITZGERALD, JAMES A. "Spelling Words Difficult for Children in Grades II-VI," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (December, 1952), 221-28.
Discusses the problem of spelling errors and their persistence in the writing of children as they move from grade to grade. Summarizes briefly basic investigations of misspellings, presents error data on words frequently misspelled, demonstrates the persistency of misspelling of certain words, and illustrates various types of errors made in frequently misspelled words.
495. FITZGERALD, JAMES A. "The Teaching of Spelling," *Elementary English*, XXX (February, 1953), 79-85.
Discusses what investigations are basic for selection and for grade placement of words and for the selection of methods in teaching spelling; the words most important in spelling; effective methods of learning to spell and good plans for teaching spelling.
496. HANNA, PAUL R., and MOORE, JAMES T., JR. "Spelling—From Spoken Word to Written Symbol," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (February, 1953), 329-37.
Suggests several procedures for teaching spelling based on the assumption that the child has already acquired a large speaking vocabulary and an adequate reading vocabulary.
497. KNOELL, DOROTHY M., and HARRIS, CHESTER W. "A Factor Analysis of Spelling Ability," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVI (October, 1952), 95-111.
Attempts to find out whether spelling is a single ability, as is assumed in current testing techniques, or is really comprised of several abilities. The findings, regarded as tentative, indicate that factors representing more than one kind of spelling ability have been obtained.
498. *London Times Educational Supplement*, No. 1955 (October 17, 1952), p. 837; No. 1956 (October 24, 1952), p. 867; No. 1957 (October 31, 1952), p. 887; No. 1958 (November 7, 1952), p. 907; No. 1959 (November 14, 1952), p. 927.
A series of comments by readers in regard to the importance of spelling as a tool of accurate expression. The phonetic approach to spelling is alternately criticized as productive of inaccuracies and defended as more realistic than "correct" spelling by rule or memorization.
499. OGDEN, HERBERT V. "Spelling Makes Friends," *English Journal*, XLI (November, 1952), 468-73.
Discusses the importance of spelling in our society. Shows how work on spelling can be used to achieve many other objectives, such as speaking before groups, honesty, and furtherance of public relations.
500. POUNDS, ELENORE THOMAS. "New Ways To Teach Your Child To Spell," *Parents' Magazine*, XXVIII (April, 1953), 42, 150-52.
Discusses and describes a method which parents can follow at home to increase a child's ability to spell.
501. WILFRID, SISTER M. "Stimulated Spelling," *Catholic School Journal*, LII (December, 1952), 323-24.
Suggests a system of classroom presentation which follows psychological perception patterns. Also offers some classroom objectives, teaching devices, and recording instruments.

HANDWRITING

WILLIAM H. GRAY
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Emporia, Kansas

502. BOOTH, JOHN E. "Engrossing Work," *New York Times Magazine*, (March 29, 1953), 34.

Describes the work of the State Department's master penman and his art of hand-lettering invitations and documents.

503. EDWARDS, PHYLLIS. "Growth in Language Arts through Handwriting," *Instructor*, LXII (January, 1953), 42.

Advocates the use of blackboard practice for corrective work and the use of planning and writing letters for expressive purposes. Facility in handwriting should set the pace for the entire program.

504. HALL, ROBERT H. "Pen-Point Detective," *Independent Woman*, XXXII (April, 1953), 117, 144.

Describes the work done by Elizabeth McCarthy, a handwriting expert. Demonstrates that no two persons write exactly alike and that no one person ever writes his name the same way twice.

505. LEAVITT, JEROME, and LEWIS, ISABEL. "The Handwriting Dilemma," *Childhood Education*, XXIX (February, 1953), 281-82.

Raises a number of questions regarding the use of manuscript or of cursive writing and gives arguments pro and con, with findings from research. Concludes that more research is necessary.

506. "Microscopic Writing," in *Life*, XXXIV (February 23, 1953), 99, 102.

Describes a set of one hundred Japanese poems inscribed on tiny pieces of deer antlers and decorated with portraits of the poets. Work was done in 1917 by Hoshu Tatsuta, a schoolteacher.

507. ROMAN, KLARA G. "What Your Child's Handwriting Can Tell You," *Parents' Magazine*, XXVIII (January, 1953), 39-41.

Stresses handwriting as a means of revealing a child's personality and describes how it is used by the Manhattan Children's Court in New York City to supplement a battery of psychological and other tests. Samples of writing and their interpretation are given.

508. SULLIVAN, MARY T. "A Functional Handwriting Program," *Elementary English*, XXX (February, 1953), 85-90.

Points out that handwriting readiness is necessary before the child will learn to write and gives techniques for developing readiness. Advises the use of manuscript writing for beginners, changing to cursive writing at end of Grade III. Stresses purposeful activity as a means of obtaining good handwriting, at the same time recognizing the need for practice and drill.

509. THOMAS, ARCHIE C. "Stenographer's Grip," *Journal of Business Education*, XXVIII (November, 1952), 67-69.

Describes a number of faulty techniques in pen-holding. There are the so-called "knucklers," "finger writers," "pen pinchers," and "heavy-handers." Illustrates the author's recommended method of grasping the pen.

510. ZELLIOT, ERNEST A. "Suggestions for Improving Handwriting in Bookkeeping Classes," *United Business Education Association Forum*, VII (October, 1952), 27, 35-36.

Emphasis is placed upon example of the teacher, good tools, and uniformity in style, size, slant of letters, spacing between letters, paragraphs, and margins.

THE SOCIAL SCIENCES²

KENNETH J. REHAGE AND
WILLIAM R. SINCOCK
University of Chicago

511. BRENNAN, FLORA A. "Prescription for Developing Resource Materials," *Ohio*

² See also Item 134 (Allen) in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1953, issue of the *School Review*.

Number 438 (Gray) in this list of selected references includes the following articles of special interest to the social-studies teacher: "Interpreting Social Studies Materials in Grades IV to VI" by Katharine F. Barnes, pp. 174-79; "Interpreting Social Studies Materials in Grades VII to IX, by Jean Fair, pp. 179-83; "What Are the Goals and Grade Sequence of Social-Studies Instruction?" by Paul R. Hanna and Clyde F. Kohn, pp. 164-69; and "Methods of Increasing Competence in Interpreting Social-Studies Materials in Kindergarten to Grade III" by Cecilia J. Lauby, pp. 170-74.

Schools, XXX (September, 1952), 256-57.

Describes the method for reorganizing and developing resource units for Grade VII in Columbus, Ohio.

512. CORMACK, MARGARET. "World View and the Elementary School," *Social Education*, XVI (November, 1952), 332-34.

Contains suggestions for redirecting student orientations in social studies on a world-wide basis to avoid misconceptions based on America as the social limit.

513. CUMMINGS, HOWARD H. "Reports on the Social Studies Curriculum," *Social Education*, XVI (November, 1952), 323-24.

Summarizes the improvements in four areas of social-studies-teaching over teaching of ten years ago.

514. ECKHAUSER, IRWIN A. "Visual and Other Aids," *Social Studies*, XLIII (October, November, and December, 1952), 250-52, 304-5, 340-42; XLIV (January through May, 1953), 31-33, 68-70, 113-14, 148-50, 489-91.

Supplies each month a brief review of current films, filmstrips, recordings, and other audio-visual aids appropriate for upper elementary-school and junior high school social studies.

515. ELLSWORTH, RUTH E. "Suggested Emphases for the Elementary School Curriculum," *Social Education*, XVII (February, 1953), 57-61.

Emphasizes participation or activity situations designed to achieve objectives in social studies built around nine listed characteristics.

516. FRANCIS, BERNICE M. "Aims and Objectives for Social Studies Teachers," *Michigan Education Journal*, XXX (January, 1953), 313.

A list of twenty objectives for social-studies teachers.

517. HANTHORN, ALICE. "Primary Social Studies," *American Childhood*,

XXXVIII (September, 1952, through May, 1953).

Provides each month two suggested units for elementary social studies, entitled "Community Helpers."

518. HORKHEIMER, PATRICIA A.; CODY, PAUL T.; and FOWLKES, JOHN GUY (editors). *Elementary Teachers Guide to Free Curriculum Materials*. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service, 1952 (ninth edition). Pp. xiv+338.

An annotated list of free instructional materials with instructions for ordering, addresses of sources, a section on social studies, and a discussion on "How Instructional Materials Implement the Social Studies," by Esther L. Berg (pp. 207-10).

519. KLEE, LORETTA E. (editor). *Social Studies for Older Children: Programs for Grades Four, Five, and Six*. Curriculum Series No. 5. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1953. Pp. 140.

Summarizes five areas of curriculum construction for upper elementary social studies: problems encountered, child-centered objectives, some programs under way, evaluation, and resource materials.

520. LINDAHL, HANNAH M. "Content of the Social Studies Program," *Instructor*, LXII (November, 1952), 70, 103.

Suggests teaching units for kindergarten to Grade VI, emphasizing teacher pre-planning. Gives evaluation criteria and bibliographical references to sources.

521. MERCER, BLAINE E. "The Case for General Education in the Social Sciences in the Preparation of the Elementary Teacher," *Social Studies*, XLIV (January, 1953), 26-27.

Points out that elementary-school teachers must be subjected to broad socializing experiences in order to stimulate such learning in young people.

522. MINARD, ELIZABETH M. "National Elections and the Elementary School," *Social Education*, XVI (October, 1952), 265, 271.

Suggests objectives and techniques for a sixth-grade correlated unit focused on a national election.

523. MOFFATT, MAURICE P., and HOWELL, HAZEL W. *Elementary Social Studies Instruction: Functional Learning for Children in Our Schools*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1952. Pp. x+486.

A comprehensive volume giving background and orientation for social studies in an elementary-school program. Contains specific suggestions for classroom resource organization and evaluation devices. Stresses integration of subject matter and student activity.

524. MOORE, CLYDE B. "Social Studies Planning for Older Children," *Social Education*, XVII (January, 1953), 11-14, 16.

Outlines basic democratic beliefs around which a social-studies curriculum for Grades IV, V, and VI should be built. Emphasizes activity programs and resource materials.

525. *Social Studies: Grades V-VI*. Curriculum Bulletin No. 4. Brooklyn, New York: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1952. Pp. xii+196.

Contains specific aids to classroom, formation of objectives, sequential arrangement, and evaluation. Provides a bibliography and a list of audio-visual aids for use at this grade level.

526. *Social Studies: Grades VII-IX, A Guide for Teachers*. Curriculum Bulletin No. 5. Brooklyn, New York: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1952. Pp. x+202.

Similar to Bulletin No. 4 (Item 525 above), covering the same problems for Grades VII-IX.

527. SPIESEKE, ALICE W. "Bibliography of Textbooks in the Social Studies, 1951-1952," *Social Education*, XVI (December, 1952), 379-81.

A list of textbooks for elementary-school, junior high school, and senior high school

social studies, arranged by names of series and by subject matter. Contains no evaluations or annotations.

528. SPOERRI, IRVIN H. "Experience, the Key to Integration," *School Arts*, LII (May, 1953), 298-99.

Outlines three programs (for Grades III, IV, and V) designed for integration of social studies and creative expression.

529. SUERKEN, ERNST H. "Observations on Teaching Citizenship," *School Executive*, LXXI (June, 1952), 49.

Some helpful hints on teaching citizenship values to elementary-school pupils.

530. WESLEY, EDGAR B., and ADAMS, MARY A. *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1952 (revised). Pp. xiv+466.

Emphasizes planning for integration and continuity. Supplies up-to-date resource units and references.

531. YOUNG, WILLIAM E. "Reading in the Social Studies of the Elementary Schools," *Social Education*, XVII (March, 1953), 111-14.

Points out that social studies have also the objective of developing reading skills in selection, location, evaluation, organization, assimilation, and retention, as well as application, of material read.

GEOGRAPHY³

EDNA E. EISEN

Kent State University

532. ANTHONY, JAMES K. "Do's and Don'ts for the Geography Teacher," *Social Education*, XVII (February, 1953), 73-74.

Explains how geography should be taught as a means of developing greater understanding among people.

533. BARTON, THOMAS FRANK. "The Sky's the Limit," *NEA Journal*, XLII (January, 1953), 19-20.

³ See also Item 194 (James) in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1953, issue of the *School Review*.

- Presents a case for introducing the child in the primary grades to concepts and experiences which will help to develop his ability to think geographically.
534. BOLGE, GRACE R. "Flannel Maps—An Activity in Fifth Grade Geography," *Journal of Geography*, LI (September, 1952), 236–37.
- Describes a method of making flannel maps and points out their classroom uses and values as teaching tools.
535. BROCKMYER, IRENE. "Ceylon versus the Curriculum," *Journal of Geography*, LI (October, 1952), 275–81.
- Reports how a fifth-grade class was guided in the study of Ceylon when a "real" opportunity was presented in a visit of a person from Ceylon.
536. COLEMAN, ELSIE. "Chesterfield County for Fourth Graders," *Journal of Geography*, LI (December, 1952), 374–76.
- Explains how fourth-graders were directed in making a study of their own county.
537. EDWARDS, JOHN HAYES. "How Well Are Intermediate Children Oriented in Space?" *Journal of Geography*, LII (April, 1953), 133–43.
- Reports an investigation made to discover the extent to which children in Grades IV–VI read the following map facts: (1) cardinal points of the compass, (2) latitude, (3) altitude, (4) area.
538. EDWARDS, PHYLLIS O. "Hawaii—A Unit for the Upper Grades," *Social Education*, (March, 1953), 121–22.
- Outlines procedures and lists available films, books, and free publications useful in developing the unit.
539. GROSS, HERBERT H. "Indices of Good Geographic Instruction," *Journal of Geography*, LI (December, 1952), 382–85.
- Presents procedures which should be employed by the teacher in guiding pupils through laboratory experiences to the goals of geographic study of places.
540. HANSON, RAUS M. "Possible Outline for Studying Geography of a Country," *Journal of Geography*, LII (January, 1953), 23–25.
- Outlines twelve main items which should be included in a geographic study of a country.
541. "Integration," *School Arts*, LII (May, 1953), 318–24.
- Contains six articles describing artwork with maps, globes, figurines, and decorative materials which contributed to, or grew out of, the study of geography.
542. KANDEL, I. L. "The Challenge of World Responsibilities," *School and Society*, LXXVII (March 21, 1953), 177–80.
- Explains how geography and history may be emphasized in elementary school to develop better world understanding and prevent the overloading of the curriculum which keeps American schools from reaching their goals.
543. KEINARD, MARGUERITE. "Using Music To Enrich Geography," *Journal of Geography*, LII (May, 1953), 189–91.
- Describes how appreciation of music and of geography may be used together to good advantage.
544. KENNY, ARLETTA C. "Teaching the Wholesale Market in Grade Two," *Journal of Geography*, LI (December, 1952), 365–74.
- Presents an outline of (1) types of discussions, (2) map work, (3) field trips, and (4) integration with other subjects, which would be useful to upper-grade teachers in planning a community study.
545. PACE, ETHEL. "Construction Activity Follows First Grade Geography Field Trip," *Journal of Geography*, LII (April, 1953), 144–46.
- Shows how first-grade children made use of their experiences in visiting a limestone quarry and mill, which are significant industries in their community.
546. PICKLESIMER, PARNELL W. "The Craft of the Geographer," *School and Society*, LXXVI (November 15, 1952), 305–8.

Explains characteristics of geographic study to show the significance and place of geography in the curriculum.

547. SCARFE, NEVILLE V. "Designing the Curriculum To Develop Geographic Concepts," *Journal of Geography*, LII (March, 1953), 98-108.

Discusses the assumptions underlying suggestions for a curriculum in geography developed according to periods of growth in children at different age levels.

548. SCHLECHTY, PAULINE. "Using an Encyclopedia for Third Grade Geography," *Journal of Geography*, LI (November, 1952), 322-24.

Explains how an encyclopedia may be effectively used to meet the needs of pupils.

549. SORENSEN, CLARENCE W. "New Patterns in Southern Asia," *Social Education*, XVII (March, 1953), 101-3.

Points out some of the significant changes in southern Asia which should be considered by both teachers and pupils.

550. SVEC, M. MELVINA. "Time Clocks," *Journal of Geography*, LII (May, 1953), 188-89.

Describes a simple device used to help children understand time differences in the United States time belts and in other parts of the world.

551. TRAIL, ROBERT WAYNE. "Maps in the Primary Grades," *Journal of Geography*, LI (September, 1952), 238-44.

Presents a case for developing map-reading readiness in primary grades as part of a continuous process in gaining ability to use maps.

552. WARMAN, HENRY J. "A Survey of the Research in Geographic Education," *Journal of Geography*, LI (November, 1952), 309-22.

Reports research projects completed between 1945 and 1952 and in progress, giving titles which indicate a wide range in types of studies in geographic education.

553. YOUNG, BERNARD J. "Resource Unit—Japan for the Sixth Grade," *Journal of Geography*, LII (January, 1953), 15-22.

Presents an outline of the subject matter, materials, and possible approaches to the study and a sample of a final objective test.

FILMS

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The following list of selected instructional motion pictures is restricted to recent 16mm films not previously listed in this journal. All listings are sound films unless otherwise indicated.

READING

554. *Primary Reading*. A set of six films, each 5 minutes in length, color. Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1952.

Each film tells a story designed to stimulate reading at the first-grade level. The titles include: "Flying a Kite," "Frank and His Dog," "Frank Tends the Garden," "Jean and Her Dolls," "Sailing a Toy Boat," and "A Surprise for Jean."

555. *Reading with Suzy*. 10 minutes, black and white or color. Los Angeles: Churchill-Wexler Film Productions, 1952.

A participation film for beginning readers. Thirty copies of a book with words and pictures from the film are supplied with each print.

CORONET FILMS, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

556. *Mary Had a Little Lamb*. 11 minutes, black and white or color. 1952.

The poem is dramatized to provide background material for reading and expression.

557. *What the Frost Does*. 10 minutes, black and white or color. 1953.

Seasonal changes at frost time. A background film for reading and expression.

ENGLISH

558. *A Christmas Carol*. 9 minutes, black and white. New York: United World Films, Inc., Castle Films Department, 1952.

A one-reel version of the Dickens story available for classroom use.

559. *Fairy Tale Classics Series*. Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1952.

This series of well-known fairy tales re-enacted in motion picture form for classroom use includes the following titles: *The Golden Axe*, 8 minutes, black and white; *Rumpelstiltskin*, 8 minutes, black and white; *Sleeping Beauty*, 8 minutes, black and white; *The Tinder Box*, 12 minutes, color.

560. *Snow Maiden*. 26 minutes, black and white or color. New York: Film House Inc., 1952.

This fairy tale was photographed in Austria, using the Salzburg marionettes.

561. *Ugly Duckling*. 10 minutes, black and white or color. Chicago: Coronet Films, 1953.

This well-known classic was filmed in Europe.

SPELLING

562. *Spelling and Learning*. 18 minutes, black and white. Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1951.

Teaching of spelling technique is shown in an actual classroom, with children responding to the stimulation of competent instruction. The importance of motivation in learning is emphasized.

SOCIAL STUDIES

563. *Linda and Roy Go Fishing*. 11 minutes, color. New Milford, New Jersey: Impco, Inc., 1953.

A photographic story of two children with a sound track of adult voices "dubbing in" the boy's and girl's presumed thoughts and feelings as they go fishing. The film is intended to provoke discussion with audiences of either children or adults.

Represents an unusual and imaginative experiment in the use of the motion-picture medium.

564. *A Primary Citizenship Series*. Gateway Productions, Inc., San Francisco, California, 1953.

A series of three films emphasizing good citizenship traits through illustrative situations involving children at home, in the neighborhood, and at school. Titles of the films are: *Let's Be Good Citizens at Home*, 8 minutes, black and white; *Let's Be Good Citizens at School*, 10 minutes, black and white; *Let's Be Good Citizens in Our Neighborhood*, 8 minutes, black and white.

565. *Rules and Laws*. 14 minutes, black and white. Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1952.

The need for rules and laws is illustrated by examples involving children at play.

GEOGRAPHY

566. *Life in the Nile Valley*. 10 minutes, black and white or color. Chicago: Coronet Films, 1952.

The daily activities of an Egyptian farm family are shown to typify the agricultural society of the Nile, from Cairo to Aswan.

567. *Understanding a Map*. 10 minutes, black and white. New York: Young America Films, Inc., 1952.

Models and animation are used to show the relation between a map and the area it represents.

ENCYCLOPAEDIA BRITANNICA FILMS, INC.,
WILMETTE, ILLINOIS

568. *Airplane Trip to Mexico*. 10 minutes, color. 1952.

Mexican children and their guests from the United States view various facets of Mexican family life. This film is also available in a Spanish version.

569. *Laplanders*. 11 minutes, black and white. 1952.

The everyday life and work of a family living above the Arctic Circle. Shows preparations for the long winter night.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

DOUGLAS E. LAWSON, *School Administration: Procedures and Policies*. New York 3: Odyssey Press, 1953. Pp. x+406. \$3.50.

WILLIAM C. REAVIS, PAUL R. PIERCE, EDWARD H. STULLKEN, and BERTRAND L. SMITH, *Administering the Elementary School: A Co-operative Educational Enterprise*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953. Pp. viii+632. \$5.00.

Public school administration has evolved through the years from the handling of relatively simple tasks in school management to an ever increasing and expanding list of responsibilities. Lawson has set forth in his book, *School Administration*, some basic policies and practical procedures that will be useful to the student of school administration and to the school administrator who finds himself constantly facing the problems of educational leadership.

The intent of the author in compiling this book is readily evident in his statement in the Preface:

It is the purpose of this book to present, especially for the inexperienced administrator and the beginning student of school administration, a statement of the major policies, principles, and procedures by which good administrative practice is governed and made functional [p. iii].

Lawson discusses problems in twelve areas of school administration. Approximately two-thirds of the book is devoted to a consideration of problems more or less strictly educational, such as supervisory techniques, guidance, and the curriculum. The remainder is concerned with the business functions of a school system, and such topics as finance, buildings and grounds, equipment and supplies, and office functions are ade-

quately treated. A statement of well-accepted thinking regarding the problem at hand is presented at the opening of each chapter; then subordinate topics are given separate consideration. The usefulness to the reader who is seeking definite information concerning any given area of school administration is enhanced by the well-organized listing of several established and accepted practices relating to the topic being considered.

Although extensive discussion of any basic theory of education is not to be prominently found within the topics presented, this does not detract from the useful purposes for which the book was written. Major emphasis is on the application of certain principles in real school situations. Lawson's *School Administration* should be a useful textbook for the student of school administrative problems and for the beginning superintendent. Also, it might well be a decidedly worth-while reference for the experienced superintendent to have on his shelves to consult when in need of suggestions and listings of approved practices concerning the many phases of school administration.

A markedly different approach and treatment of school problems is to be found in *Administering the Elementary School* by Reavis, Pierce, Stullken, and Smith. Here the authors begin with a basic and meaningful philosophy of education for the elementary school and carry that philosophy through the entire book, as the problems of elementary education are given careful consideration. The reviewer was impressed with the way in which that philosophy, suggestions for organizing, and practical ideas concerning various aspects of elementary education were all

consistently woven together in a most meaningful manner.

The opening chapter deals with the functions of the elementary school, and the concepts presented give the reader a well-defined foundation upon which he can properly consider the subsequent plans and policies throughout the book. After due emphasis has been given to the "social capital" which the child brings with him when he enters elementary school, the authors proceed to lay out plans for organization and administration so that part of the child's education may be directly related to his needs and the school may make a maximum contribution to his development.

Administration of elementary education is described as a co-operative educational enterprise, in which the authors refer to the functioning of the "school team" consisting of the children, a teacher, the parents, and community leaders as a vehicle through which the most effective planning for childhood education can be achieved. The importance of this thought is thus stated by the authors:

When a team of interested persons co-operate in planning, managing, and operating a laboratory of living and learning for children in every classroom in a school system, the chances for achieving the goals of the elementary school are excellent [p. 93].

The final chapter, entitled "The Emerging Elementary School," provides a forward look for elementary education. The authors emphasize that the new elementary school should be conceived as a co-operative enterprise and that staff members should become makers, as well as users, of educational theory if new educational gains are to be achieved. A summary at the conclusion of each chapter, in which the most important thoughts and principles are clearly restated is helpful to the reader in maintaining a coherence in his reading as he proceeds through the book. The extensive range of experience which the authors have had in elementary education is clearly evident as the reader

progresses from topic to topic, and it is to be noted that very little, if any, space is given to moot questions or untried practices.

This book gives a sense of direction and valuable plans of organization for those who wish to bring the elementary school to a high level of efficiency in serving the child and his society. Teachers and school administrators will profit from the contributions this book has to make to elementary education.

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WALTER ARNO WITTICH and CHARLES FRANCIS SCHULLER, *Audio-visual Materials: Their Nature and Use*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1953. Pp. xx+564. \$6.00.

Thirty years ago there were probably fewer college audio-visual courses than there are authors of textbooks for such courses today. The book reviewed here is one of about a dozen whose purpose is to suggest some ways of meeting classroom learning problems more effectively through the use of audio-visual instructional methods and materials. *Audio-visual Materials: Their Nature and Use* will be seriously considered by educators as a basic textbook in teacher-preparation curriculums and as a welcome addition to the professional library for in-service teachers.

Since Wittich and Schuller have written in an area that has already received considerable attention, it is perhaps reasonable to compare their book with the books of other writers whose purposes were similar. Most of these books follow a common pattern.

First, there may be a section in which the importance of audio-visual materials is set forth. Here are found brief discussions of the nature of learning and of learners, the importance of communication in the modern world, and surveys of types of instructional materials ordered in a more or less discernible (and defensible) continuum.

A second section may consist of detailed definitions and descriptions of various types of teaching materials. The peculiar characteristics and contributions of each instructional aid are expounded. Suggestions for use and information about sources and production techniques are also given as appropriate in this section.

A third part may provide examples of the use of audio-visual materials at various subject and grade levels. One or more chapters on initiating and administering an audio-visual program may follow.

Wittich and Schuller have blazed no new trails in the matter of content and organization. An analysis of all the books in the field reveals that the textbook being reviewed treats at least 80 per cent of the types of instructional devices included in the book that is most complete in this respect. The most notable omissions are drama, demonstrations, and puppetry, which are far from universally included in competing textbooks. On the other hand, Wittich and Schuller devote somewhat more space to maps, motion pictures, and television than do the other authors.

The treatment of magnetic recording, in the opinion of the reviewer, is inadequate in all textbooks on audio-visual materials. None has mentioned the magnetic track motion picture, nor the imminent magnetic picture recorder which may revolutionize both the motion picture and the television production industries. Perhaps this field is too new to justify a demand that it be treated in older books, but it would seem that much information might have been available for publication under a 1953 copyright date.

Several good features of *Audio-visual Materials: Their Nature and Use* deserve special mention. The technique of introducing chapters with descriptions of realistic situations will be enjoyed by many readers. The profusion of illustrations certainly adds to the appeal of the book and increases its readability.

Instructors who teach courses in audio-

visual materials and methods will appreciate the fact that content from many specific motion pictures, filmstrips, and other audio-visual materials has been integrated beautifully into the textual material of the book.

Although Wittich and Schuller have done a relatively good job of utilizing research findings to support their generalizations concerning the nature and use of certain audio-visual materials, there is yet much room for improvement. Within the past few years, the armed forces have sponsored training-aids research of tremendous importance. This work has been largely ignored in all audio-visual textbooks and, unfortunately, is omitted also by Wittich and Schuller.

The critical reader will be annoyed by many evidences of carelessness in writing and of lack of attention to detail in proofreading. Some minor examples are: *Rulon* is spelled *Roulon* (pp. 387-88), research conducted by F. Dean McClusky is attributed to Frederick K. McClusky (p. 387), and the Coronet film, *Our Animal Neighbors*, is listed as simply *Animal Neighbors* (p. 364). This last error, as the authors must know, is the kind that can cause grievous annoyance to film librarians. More serious are such defects as the omission of the amplifier from the diagram of the sound-reproducing mechanism on page 355, and the specific identification of the advantages of all magnetic recording with wire recorders alone as occurs on page 299.

The defects listed in the foregoing paragraph are illustrative of many that can be found throughout the book. How much they and the occasional ambiguous paragraphs and sentences detract from the book's overall usefulness is unknown. It is doubtful that the loss will be great, however. In view of the over-all attractiveness and completeness of the book, the reviewer is inclined to predict that it will take its place among the leading textbooks in its field.

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ANDREW THOMAS WEAVER, GLADYS LOUISE BORCHERS, and DONALD KLIJSE SMITH, *The Teaching of Speech: A Textbook for College Courses in Speech Education*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. Pp. viii+566. \$4.75.

Written primarily for speech teachers and students preparing to teach speech, this textbook offers practical suggestions about what to teach and how to teach it. The authors examine the problems of teaching speech from the standpoint of the classroom teacher of speech and the director of speech activities. Helpful solutions to some of these problems are offered by (1) presenting speech-training as an integral factor in the total educational enterprise, (2) analyzing in detail the speech teacher's task, and (3) showing how successful speech teachers are fulfilling their functions.

Part I presents the historical and educational setting of the speech discipline and the status of speech teaching in the United States today. Part II focuses on the development of basic habits and skills. These skills include developing effective action, developing effective voice, developing effective language, developing effective listening, developing meanings, and developing social adjustment. Part III describes in detail nine useful areas of speaking activity where these basic skills can be applied: informal speech; public speaking; discussion; debate; reading; story-telling and dramatization; drama; radio, television, and motion pictures; and speech contests. Part IV sets forth the theory and techniques of criticism and discusses evaluation of student improvement.

The philosophy of the authors of this book should be impressed on all speech teachers. As speech teachers, we are concerned with speech for everyone. We want to help not only the child so handicapped in speech that he cannot articulate successfully the sounds of his own language, not only the child who

shows superior ability in persuasive speaking—we want *every* child to reach his individual potentialities.

With this philosophy in mind, the authors proceed to outline a plan for successful teaching. The successful speech teacher first tries to understand each student as an individual. Together the teacher and student seek the personal goal for the student's speech improvement. The teacher then evaluates the student's progress in terms of this goal. In this way, the teacher concentrates on developing the student's assets, rather than on imposing his personal norms of speech on the student.

The chapter on criticism and evaluation gives suggestions for criticism by teachers and fellow-students. The authors warn against the abuse of criticism, in which the teacher may evaluate a student's work in terms of his personal preferences for speech standards. A similar warning should be made to students who rate others in the class. If the suggested rating scales provided in this textbook are to be used by students, the teacher should be extremely careful in seeing that they are used wisely. A student who is handicapped in speech may be very sensitive to criticism by his classmates and may become discouraged to the point where his speech classes are doing more harm than good.

The authors have done a commendable job of presenting their material in an interesting, logical, and easily comprehended style. The practical suggestions and examples of specific classroom procedures should make this textbook especially useful to a beginning teacher of speech.

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Vocational Division Bulletin No. 249, Home Economics Series No. 28—*With Focus on Family Living: The Story of Four Experiments in Community Organization for Family Life Education* by MURIEL W. BROWN. Pp. viii+248. \$0.60.

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THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL

Volume LIV

*

NOVEMBER 1953

*

Number 3

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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LAG IN DIFFUSION OF DESIRABLE INNOVATING PRACTICES

NOT ONCE in a century and a half of national history has the curriculum of the school caught up with the dynamic content of American life." This cryptic statement of more than a quarter-century ago appeared in the 1927 yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, *Curriculum-making: Past and Present*. The findings of two recent studies indicate that the statement still has relevance.

One of these studies, prepared by Jesse A. Bond and John A. Hockett, appears as the 1953 Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching and is entitled *Curriculum Trends and Teacher Education*. Copies of this yearbook may be secured from Allen D. Patterson, secretary-treasurer of the association, State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pennsylvania. The

second is a study by Thomas M. Barrington, *The Introduction of Selected Educational Practices into Teachers Colleges and Their Laboratory Schools*. As Study Number 8 in the series of the Institute of Administrative Research, Barrington's report is published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University (\$2.50 a copy).

Using a questionnaire method, Bond and Hockett undertook (1) to determine the significance attached by educators to selected trends in elementary and secondary education and (2) to determine the extent to which teacher-training institutions, schools which co-operate in the training of teachers, and schools where graduates of teacher-training programs are placed are taking cognizance of those trends. Sixteen major trends in elementary education were identified by an analysis of literature in the field. They are stated as follows:

1. Better understanding of children—their physical, mental, social, emotional, and moral growth and development.

2. Increased emphasis on the development of habits and attitudes appropriate to democracy.

3. Increased recognition of the importance of maturation and readiness in learning.

4. Use of greater variety of more effective curriculum materials—audio-visual and other.

5. Improved recognition of, and provision for, individual differences, including (a) handicapped pupils, (b) gifted pupils, (c) retarded pupils.

6. Organization of the curriculum into large blocks, units, or areas requiring selection, emphasis, and further organization by the teacher as he guides the experiences of the pupils.

7. Increased opportunity for pupils to give expression to the concepts and insights they are acquiring.

8. Improved understanding of the community and wider use of community resources.

9. Greater emphasis on participation in activities rather than merely learning to verbalize about activities.

10. Increased provision for mental health of pupils and teachers.

11. Emphasis on completeness of experience of pupils, through their participation in purposing, planning, and evaluating their activities.

12. Greater effort to secure co-operation of the home in achieving desirable objectives for the child.

13. Improved means for evaluating the needs and achievements of pupils.

14. Increased emphasis on intercultural education.

15. Increased emphasis on conservation education.

16. Increased emphasis on camping education.

Ninety-five per cent of the forty-two educators whose responses are

summarized in this study believed the first of these trends was of "much importance." A smaller per cent of those participating in this study attributed "much" importance to each of the succeeding items in the list. It is interesting to note that the first fourteen trends were seen as having "much importance" by 74 per cent, or more, of the respondents. Only 32 per cent attached the same degree of importance to the last item—camping education.

For each of the trends, Bond and Hockett undertook to determine the extent to which elementary-school teachers are prepared to incorporate practices consistent with these trends into their teaching. To get at this problem, the investigators asked respondents to estimate whether professional courses, academic courses, and student teaching made significant contributions to such preparation.

If the data presented are accepted at face value, it is apparent that something less than an adequate contribution is being made in each of these areas by programs of pre-service education for teachers. Even for the first trend (better understanding of children), which 95 per cent of the respondents judged to be of "much" importance, only 78 per cent of them felt that professional courses contributed "much" to teachers' preparation in this area. Less than half (45 per cent) felt that student teaching contributed "much" to this objective, and only 3 per cent felt that general academic courses made much of a contribution in this area.

As might be expected, there was a

diversity of opinion as to the extent to which professional, academic, and student-teaching courses made significant contributions to the preparation of teachers for camping education, the last of the sixteen trends identified. More than two-thirds of the respondents believed that camping education was a trend of either "some" or "much" importance.

From these data the impression emerges that institutions which prepare teachers are not giving a great deal of attention to what the authors of this yearbook regard as reasonably well-established trends. If one views these trends as desirable, it is difficult not to become disheartened by the conclusions reached by Bond and Hockett. Neither is there much encouragement in their findings with respect to the extent that such trends have actually been recognized by schools. The respondents in this study seemed to feel that few schools have taken much cognizance of the trends under consideration. In fact, for only four of the trends (Nos. 3, 4, 5, and 15 in the foregoing list) did more than 10 per cent of those replying feel that the public schools had introduced the practice in question to a considerable extent. Even here the per cents were low, ranging from 11 to 15.

In spite of the limitations of a questionnaire study such as this and in spite of the fact that the opinions expressed represent those of a relatively small number of educators, the findings of this survey deserve careful consideration. Because neither teacher-training institutions nor public

schools appear to give much recognition to the particular trends studied, one wonders whether the major blocks to wider diffusion of supposedly desirable practices exist because of certain characteristics of those institutions. Apparently the conditions which make for adaptability are lacking in both cases. Teachers and administrators who genuinely desire to work at the "cutting edge" of the educational enterprise evidently will have a hard time.

Barrington's study approaches the same problem from a somewhat different point of view. Following the general pattern established by Professor Paul Mort and his associates in their extended studies of adaptability, Barrington sought to establish the number of years which elapse between the introduction of selected practices and their incorporation into the curriculum of teacher-training institutions. Using a smaller number of practices, he made the same kind of inquiry with respect to diffusion of new ideas into the programs of laboratory schools affiliated with the teacher-training institutions.

The general conclusions from this study are stated as follows:

From fifty-five to sixty years are required on the average for a new practice to gain acceptance by all public-supported teachers colleges in the United States. . . .

Approximately forty-eight years are required on the average for a new practice to gain acceptance by all laboratory schools affiliated with public-supported teachers colleges of the United States.

Further analysis indicated that twenty-eight years will elapse before

as many as 20 per cent of the teachers' colleges will adopt an innovation. Their affiliated laboratory schools apparently are somewhat more flexible, for only nineteen years appear to be required in order to accomplish the diffusion of a given practice to 20 per cent of the laboratory schools. Barrington has made a variety of other analyses in order to answer such questions as the following:

How do teachers colleges compare with public school systems in the rapidity with which they respond to new educational ideas and practices?

How do laboratory schools compare with public school systems in the rapidity with which they respond to new educational ideas and practices?

How do teachers colleges compare with their own laboratory schools in regard to the diffusion of selected educational practices applicable to both types of institutions?

Are there regional differences among teachers colleges and among laboratory schools with respect to the rapidity with which they respond to new educational ideas and practices?

Barrington's recommendations for action designed to speed the diffusion of demonstrably effective and valuable practices include (1) the establishment of state-wide or regional organizations for the purpose of pooling and sharing ideas, (2) improved co-ordination between teachers' colleges and their laboratory schools, (3) more effective organization of teachers' colleges and laboratory schools for providing service to other schools.

Both the Barrington study and the Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching deserve greater atten-

tion than can be devoted to them here. It seems to the present writers that in educational circles certainly, and to a large extent among the public generally, a considerably body of sentiment would doubtless be found favorable to most, if not all, of the trends and practices under consideration in these two studies. None of them seems really to be a "radical" innovation. Why, then, one might ask, the reluctance to adopt them? Is it that teachers and administrators fear an unfavorable public reaction? Is it that these practices are likely to involve additional expense? Is it that teachers and administrators find it easier to continue with traditional practices rather than to introduce new ones? Have the schools become so institutionalized that they will change only in response to extraordinary pressures? Is it that teachers and administrators are not convinced that such trends and practices really deserve to be more widely accepted? Clearly, educators would do well to direct much more intensive study to an understanding of why there is such a lag in the diffusion of desirable new practices.

SCHOOL CAMPS

EXAMINATION of a currently prominent practice may serve to suggest what can be done to close the gap between what we know and what we do in school. It is perhaps coincidence that the school camp is the one point at which the Barrington study and the study of the Association for Student

Teaching can be compared. Again, it may be coincidence which has made this very practice the subject of much current literature. At any rate, this relatively "new" school practice is recognized by many educators as having some or much merit.

Education in Michigan's Out-of-Doors (Lansing, Michigan: State Department of Public Instruction) is a report of a seven-year experiment sponsored jointly by the Michigan Department of Public Instruction and the W. K. Kellogg Foundation. The experiment had some interesting results which have led to support from the Michigan legislature, many service and other community organizations, and numerous educators who have observed the school camp in operation in Michigan. Among the most interesting of these results are those described below.

1. The number of Michigan school systems providing a week or more of camping as part of the curriculum increased from nine before 1946 to eighty in the 1952-53 school year.

2. Seven teacher-training institutions in Michigan expanded their offerings in pre-service and in-service activities related to school camps during the period of the experiment.

3. A one-semester work-learn camp operated for potential drop-out boys resulted in a return to school of 90 per cent of the drop-out prospects.

4. The experiment was financed in part by a grant from the state legislature and resulted in the enactment of a law providing broad powers to school

districts in the use of camps and other outdoor facilities in the educational process.

Although the Michigan report indicates progress in school camping in one situation, the findings of Barrington and those of the Association for Student Teaching show that such is not always the case in other areas. One reason for the lack of enthusiasm for camps as an educational medium is the array of practical problems visualized by school administrations. Some of these problems are real, but others can be resolved, as is indicated by numerous reports from persons who have carried on camping programs.

Among the obstacles overcome in Palatine, Illinois, in the planning of a one-week school camp for sixth-graders, was the resistance developing from the misconceptions of parents and pupils. The superintendent, Marion Jordan, reports in the April, 1953, issue of the *National Elementary Principal* that the cost (\$15.00 per child for five and one-half days) was a deterrent with only three of the homes. However, only 92 of the 120 students who were eligible for camp actually registered, and these only after an intensive educational program had been undertaken with the assistance of the parent-teacher association and other interested groups. The camp was offered on a voluntary basis, and substitute teachers were provided to carry on the regular sixth-grade classes for pupils not attending camp. The regular teachers functioned as resident counselors and instructors at camp.

A pre-camp conference provided opportunity for orientation of teachers, parents, and resource people and for programming. While the general structure of the camp program had been set up, co-operative pupil-teacher planning and evening staff sessions were regular parts of the camp operation. The learning experiences were varied yet intensive in areas of conservation, nature craft, creative expression in art and dramatics, topography, etc. The accomplishments of the camp in terms of classroom subject areas were not, apparently, measured objectively, but, in the opinions of all participants, staff members, and observers, the camp was of great value in the provision of firsthand experience for the teaching of geography, science, health, history, arithmetic, and other of the conventional subject areas. The experience also served as a springboard for the continuation of these studies in the following months in the classroom.

Other problems in the initiation of school camps were faced in a sixth-grade situation in New York through pupil planning, with resource people within the community assisting in the technicalities of sanitation, fire protection, cooking, conservation, etc. Nicholas Troisi and Eloise McKnight, of Geneseo, New York, writing in the May, 1953, issue of *New York State Education*, point out that, while teachers may be unfamiliar with all the phases of camp planning, many persons in any community are able and willing to assist in resolving the prob-

lems. This New York experiment found that the planning for the outing provided numerous opportunities for correlation with the subject areas. One plan even provided for the initiation of a savings-account system in the classroom as part of the financing of the trip. In this respect, however, the school camp serves no other purpose than is served by any sixth-grade project which involves group planning.

Some rather unusual benefits were derived from an experiment in camping as a school learning situation in Indiana, as reported in the May, 1953, issue of *Indiana Teacher* by Edward Weisse, of the Michigan City schools. Among these was the citizenship training developed in a week-end trip made by a seventh-grade class to a state park, where historical lore and the park clean-up projects gave real experience in better community understanding and appreciation. Also suggested as a unique value is the development of an understanding of the existence of a Supreme Being through studies of the patterns of nature; in the words of Mr. Weisse, students could not help realizing that "God is in nature." Again, as in the case of most of the articles reporting on school camps, this experiment pointed to the many advantages derived from the removal of the "desk barrier," of the "shirt-and-tie-environment," in the social-living situation of the camp.

Financing is one of the great problems in introducing school camps. Agnes C. Fahy, guidance counselor in

the Orange, New Jersey, schools reports (*New Jersey Educational Review*, April, 1953) astonishing success in recruiting financial aid from numerous agencies within the community to provide camping for underprivileged children. Although this particular effort was designed to give opportunity to young boys needing guidance in an informal situation requiring group adjustments, it is envisioned as an indication of the amount of community support which is available for camping enterprises.

The New Jersey experiment suggests the value of school camps as laboratories for observation of student behavior in group situations which are not controlled by the formality of the classroom. An article by Nathan A. Pitts, of Coppin State Teachers College in Baltimore, Maryland, appearing in the *Social Studies* for May, 1953, suggests some ways in which school guidance personnel can make use of camp experiences to supplement the school guidance program. This article has merit both for situations in which school camps are under way and for situations in which such programs have not yet been initiated but students do attend private camps. Pitts suggests that schools co-operate with camp counselors to obtain information about pupil behavior in camp. In addition to the data on test results and records of academic development contained in school guidance folders, teachers and guidance personnel would find it useful to know the problems and adjustments faced

by their students in social and personal relationships. If such knowledge cannot be obtained by school staff members through actual observations made in school camps, certainly the co-operative exchange of data between the school and private camp officials is a step in the right direction.

HOW SMALL-GROUP INSTRUCTION WORKS

AN EFFECTIVE means of adapting instruction to individual differences is to make extended use of group activities. To be sure, this is not the only means of accomplishing the purpose, nor can it be said that the only justification for group activities in a class is to provide for the wide range of individual differences found in any classroom. In any case, evidence of the importance attached by many teachers to effective use of subgroups in the classroom is increasing.

A number of obstacles stand in the way of extending the use of small groups in classroom instruction. Among those often cited by teachers are (1) children's lack of skill in group activities, (2) the difficulty of managing classrooms where many groups are at work on different problems at one time, (3) the lack of physical facilities that make group work feasible, (4) the doubtful value of the learning that results for an entire class as a consequence of group "reports," and (5) the difficulty of establishing a satisfactory basis for grouping.

One or another of these difficulties, as well as others that might be men-

tioned, frequently is sufficient to persuade teachers that group work is hardly worth the effort. As is so often the case in education, we do not have sufficiently precise knowledge to give guidance, reassurance, and feelings of security to those for whom extensive use of small groups represents an innovation. We do not know, for example, to what extent working with subgroups does, in fact, result in greater achievement of particular objectives than would be the case if the class were to work as a whole or in some other way. We do not know what represents the most desirable balance of individual work, small-group work, and work in a total class group in order to achieve desired objectives. We do not have available sufficiently refined means for appraising growth toward all the objectives for which small-group work is thought to be appropriate.

An interesting explanatory study of some of the problems that arise in connection with the use of small groups has recently been completed by Mary Clare Petty at the University of Texas. Her report, entitled *Intra-class Grouping in the Elementary School*, has been published by the Bureau of Laboratory Schools of the University of Texas and is available for \$2.00 from the University of Texas Press, Austin 12, Texas.

Miss Petty's study considered intra-class grouping from the standpoint of (1) the relationship of the structure of the class studied to practices in grouping; (2) the techniques used in work-

ing with groups; and (3) the role of classroom facilities, equipment, and instructional materials in group work. Each of these three problems was studied in relation to the teaching of arithmetic, reading, and social studies in two first-grade, two third-grade, and two fifth-grade classrooms in Casis Elementary School in Austin. The basic data used were obtained from a study of cumulative records, interviews with teachers, classroom observations, and sociometric tests.

One of the most valuable contributions of this work arises from the detailed descriptions of ways in which the teachers worked with intraclass groups. Summarizing this information in general terms, Miss Petty writes:

1. All teachers stated that setting standards and evaluating work was an important part of the guidance of group work. In general they agreed that this was the very beginning of all successful group work. Observations revealed many examples of children on all grade levels setting standards and evaluating work.

2. All teachers had evolved definite plans for helping children develop desirable group-work habits. Their plans for developing desirable group-work habits were inseparably linked with plans for setting standards and for developing pupil leadership.

3. Careful planning for group work by pupils and teachers appeared to contribute much to the success of group work in all six classrooms.

4. The teachers were very careful to give consideration to the problem of training for leadership in group work. All six teachers used group leaders and rotated the roles of leadership from week to week. All classes understood the responsibilities of group leaders and the responsibilities of group

members to the leaders. The teachers frequently used the technique of individual conferences with group leaders to prepare them for roles of leadership.

5. Maintaining a balance of work as individuals, in small groups, and as a class group appeared to give the classes unity that might have been sacrificed with too much emphasis upon small-group work. A balance of work as individuals and as a group was maintained even while intraclass groups were functioning as units, especially in the first grade. Group reports to the classes also appeared to give unity to the classes.

6. A wide range in group activities was observed in all classrooms. In all situations children were given definite assignments which they were expected to complete as they worked in groups and were allowed to choose activities after the assigned work was completed. Providing a rich variety of activities to choose from appeared to be important in the successful guidance of intraclass groups.

7. The teachers used two general plans for relating themselves to several groups working at one time. One plan was to rotate the groups for the major attention of the teacher while other groups worked more or less independently under pupil leadership. The other plan was to have all groups working under pupil leadership which had been carefully prepared and to free the teacher to work with any groups or any individuals in any way she considered best. The first plan was generally used in the first-grade classrooms, but both plans were in successful operation in the third- and fifth-grade classrooms.

8. Well-trained group leaders, well-stored materials, and well-understood plans for group work facilitated the management of routine in all classrooms.

9. All intraclass grouping is basically a technique for meeting individual needs and not a technique for bringing about homogeneity within intraclass groups. The six cooperating teachers appreciated this fact

and did not plan for the differences within the intraclass groups.

While studies of this kind yield relatively few firm conclusions, they nevertheless serve to clarify some of the basic problems that need to be investigated. Miss Petty has outlined a number of such problems at the conclusion of her report. Investigation of some of these seems not to be beyond the range of possibility with the research tools currently available. Other problems will need still sharper definition before systematic investigation of them can be undertaken. In any event, Miss Petty's work will be worth careful study by those who propose to inquire further into the consequences of working with small groups in regular classroom situations.

POINTERS ON MENTAL HEALTH

DR. WILLIAM C. MENNINGER, secretary of the Menninger Foundation, published a brief article on "Self-understanding for Teachers," in the September, 1953, *NEA Journal*, based on a more extended treatment of the subject in a pamphlet, *Self-understanding*, published by Science Research Associates, Chicago 10, Illinois (\$0.40 a copy).

Teachers and school administrators will be especially interested in Dr. Menninger's briefly stated criteria for emotional maturity. He says:

You are emotionally mature to the extent that you:

Find greater satisfaction in giving than in receiving.

Form satisfying and permanent loyalties in give-and-take relationships.

Use your leisure creatively.

Contribute to the improvement of your home, school, community, nation, and world.

Learn to profit from your mistakes and successes.

Are relatively free from fears, anxieties, and tensions.

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE SCHOOLS

Handwriting survey A summary of a survey of handwriting instruction in Wisconsin, carried on by the School of Education at the University of Wisconsin, was commented on in these columns in the May, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*. There has recently come to our attention a report, prepared by Gilbert R. Bode, of a similar survey of handwriting practices in Texas. This survey was underwritten by Noble and Noble Publishers, Inc. The schools participating enrolled approximately 60 per cent of all the elementary-school children in Texas. Among the major findings are the following:

1. Manuscript writing is taught in Grades I and II in nearly every school in Texas. Practically every school uses the standard, unjoined manuscript-writing forms.

2. The transition to cursive writing is made in Grade III by the majority of the schools reporting. Fifty-one per cent of these schools make the transition in the first half of Grade III, 39 per cent in the last half of Grade II, and the remaining 10 per cent over both the last half of Grade II and the first half of Grade III.

3. The schools overwhelmingly (73 per cent) prefer a functional approach, in which handwriting instruction is correlated with instruction in other areas, as opposed to drill.

4. Legibility in writing appears to be stressed rather than speed.

5. Writing with ink begins in Grade IV in 44 per cent of the schools, and in Grade V in 37 per cent. About 70 per cent of the schools permit the use of both fountain pens and ball-point pens.

6. There is no clear-cut agreement on the forms of letters and of numerals to be used.

Art and the teacher *Art in the Modern Public Schools* is the title of the Biennial Report for 1950-52 of the Madison, Wisconsin, Board of Education. Prepared under the direction of Lucy Irene Buck, who served as art supervisor in Madison for thirty-one years before her untimely death in February, 1953, this attractive brochure presents through photographs and text a broad review of art activities for both elementary- and secondary-school pupils.

"Art instruction," says this report, "requires a creative teacher, one skilled in art expression and sensitive to each child's own creative ability." Such teachers are by no means as abundant as we might wish. To develop a measure of skill in art expression requires a kind of experience which many teachers do not get in their pre-service training, and fewer of them get the help they need in in-service training programs. As Ruth E. Whorl, director of art education in the Akron, Ohio, public schools, pointed out in the May, 1953, issue of *Art Education* (a publication of the Related Arts Service, 511 Fifth Avenue, New York 17, New York), teachers of self-contained classrooms often recognize a need to develop such skill. In order to fill this need for Akron

teachers, four three-day workshops have recently been held. Fifty teachers, released from school for the purpose, participated in each workshop. In commenting upon the activities of the workshop, Miss Whorl writes:

Only teachers who are self-confident can work creatively with children. This was our cue for the first lessons. We would not use paint or crayons which suggested drawing, but something three-dimensional. A demonstration was given using folded newspaper, wire, cloth, etc., to make basic human figures. The teachers loved it. They padded the figures with cotton, covered them with old rayon stockings, and made something that was their own. This experience was useful to them in solving problems involving dioramas, costume study, puppets, etc. The wire, which our local newspaper puts around the bundles of papers for the carriers, is perfect for the basic figures, and the boys love to collect it. All art materials were furnished, but teachers were asked to bring in paper bags, newspapers, coffee cans, needles, thread, worn-out hose, clothes pins, and other scrap materials. What fun these teachers had! Many said it was the first thing they had ever made and they found it a thrilling experience. Many of them worked hours after going home, in order to finish some object. They worked fast trying to get everything they could in the fifteen hours, as good teachers have always done. The teachers get better acquainted with each other and we often heard them say they were anxious to get back and show their children what they had made. . . . Several principals came and worked side by side with the teachers.

Using community service agencies Increasingly, schools and other community agencies are coming to a clearer recognition of the benefits that accrue from close co-operation. Nevertheless, there is not always an equally clear conception of

the appropriate role of each of the parties to such co-operative effort.

The board of superintendents of the Philadelphia public schools has recently approved a tentative statement of "Policy for the Use of Services of Community Agencies in School Instruction." The statement appeared in the issue of *School News and Views*, a publication of the Philadelphia public schools, for March 16, 1953. It reads as follows:

In all relations between the Philadelphia public schools and community agencies where assistance in the instructional process either within the classroom or in in-service courses for teachers is the dominant objective, the following principles should apply:

1. The initiation of such services should in the main come from the individual schools, or from the school administration. Unless there is a special directive relating to the use of the services of a particular agency, final responsibility for deciding what to use and what not to use rests with the individual school.

2. The services should be of the type that teachers and schools seek or desire as a means of enriching the accepted school program and more fully achieving the regular school objectives—not services thrust upon the schools primarily to promote the cause of a community agency.

3. Final responsibility for the determination and control of the instructional process should always remain with the school rather than the assisting agency.

4. Private or partisan purposes of a community agency should not be prominent or dominant, and any advantage gained by the agency in the furtherance of its own ends should be indirect, and of secondary importance so far as the schools are concerned.

5. In any case where services are accepted that present less than the total picture of a controversial subject, the limited nature of the presentation should be known by teach-

ers and students, and to the extent that is feasible should be rounded out with other presentations.

6. The acceptance of service from a community organization should in no way lessen freedom of discussion within the school—that is, the right to examine at the appropriate time and place the views advanced by the agency. Further, this relationship should carry no obligation for return favors from the school beyond that of courteous recognition for assistance given.

7. No services of a community agency that conflict with sound educational procedure, good taste, or the acceptable ideals of schools and society should be brought into the schools.

8. In all cases where the Curriculum Office or any other central administrative office, shares in planning for the use of the services of a community agency for instructional purposes, that office shall insist that the plans be in accord with these principles. If a community agency cannot see its way clear to act in keeping with these principles, the use of its services should be discouraged.

9. All relationships of the nature here discussed should be conducted in such ways as to promote mutual understanding and respect of each party for the work and the problems of the other.

The general principles in this statement are well worth consideration by schools elsewhere. Two points seem to be especially worth comment. First it will be noted that, in the main, "final responsibility for deciding what to use and what not to use rests with the individual school." This is a clear recognition of the desirability of relying upon the professional competence of a local school staff. Second, there is no attempt to limit relationships to community agencies whose purposes are altogether unselfish or whose views on

controversial issues are without bias. In commenting upon this matter, *School News and Views* points out:

In part this is because there are few, if any, such "Simon-pure" organizations. More important, however, effective education in a democracy must include the experience of learning to cope with partisan and conflicting views.

Class instruction on stringed instruments In 24 of the 113 Houston, Texas, elementary schools, 650 students in Grades IV through VI are enrolled in a voluntary program of stringed-instrument instruction. The July, 1953, issue of the *American Music Conference News* includes a brief description of this enterprise. The supervisor of instrumental music for Houston schools, Cedric L. Seaver, believes that class instruction is more effective than individual lessons in introducing music to young students. He is quoted further as follows:

We aren't guessing about results but have conducted controlled experiments. We have found that rather than interfering with other phases of school work, after enrolling in the string classes, students' grades in other subjects actually improved in spite of the school time involved. This reflects the development of better study habits and a more meaningful interest in all school activities.

The classes generally enrol from fifteen to thirty students, and they meet twice each week for forty-five-minute periods. Students furnish their own instruments, but the school district pays for teachers, materials, music, and equipment.

Answering questions of parents A committee of sixteen teachers of the Richland, Washington, elementary schools recently prepared a booklet designed to answer questions that parents frequently ask about the school's reading program. A questionnaire sent to parents served to identify the questions that bother parents of children in the primary and intermediate grades.

According to Mrs. Lilly Peterson, principal of the Jason Lee School, who sent a brief account of this project to the *Elementary School Journal*, parents most frequently asked questions like the following:

What is meant by reading readiness?

Why is so much time spent in preparing a child to read charts rather than starting him in a book?

Are children taught phonics?

How do you go about teaching an intermediate child sounds and basic fundamentals that were not grasped in the primary grades?

Why are children grouped for reading?

Doesn't this give some of them a feeling of inferiority?

How can I help to interest my child in reading something besides the comics?

Isn't the alphabet taught any more?

When should a child know it?

The teachers' answer to these and other questions are briefly and con-

cisely stated in a twelve-page mimeographed booklet, entitled "Reading in the Elementary School." In addition, a list of children's magazines and a bibliography for parents are included.

Mrs. Peterson tells of other outcomes less tangible than the pamphlet that stemmed from the study:

Numerous suggestions were gleaned by teachers from the parents' voluntary remarks. Although the sheets that were sent home required no signature, many parents signed their questionnaires. In teacher-parent conferences arranged as a result of some of these replies, teachers could discuss particular points of interest or of uncertainty that were uppermost in the minds of the parents. Individual differences were clarified, and specific plans were laid cooperatively with parents for a large number of pupils.

Some teachers planned a "back-to-school" night for parents. Questions of a general nature were used by teachers for discussion with parents at the visiting period in the classrooms preceding the PTA meeting each month. In one school an evening program was presented which demonstrated some of the regular teaching methods. The parents' favorable comments more than repaid the teacher for the time and effort spent in planning and giving the program.

KENNETH J. REHAGE
WILLIAM R. SINCOCK

WHO'S WHO FOR NOVEMBER

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by KENNETH J. REHAGE, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago, and WILLIAM R. SINCOCK, research assistant for the Midwest Administration Center located at the University of Chicago. JOHN I. GOODLAD, professor of education and director of the Division of Teacher Education, Emory University, and director of the Agnes Scott-Emory Teacher Education Program, delineates some of the conflicting positions concerning, and approaches to, pre-service education of elementary-school teachers. GRANVILLE B. JOHNSON, JR., assistant professor of education at Emory University, points out the limitations of intelligence tests that must be taken into account when the intelligence quotient is used as a measure for predicting achievement. ROBERT N. WALKER, director of the Child Study and Guidance Department of the Akron, Ohio, public schools, gives suggestion to aid the teacher in interpreting mental-test results to parents. N. DEAN EVANS, sixth-grade teacher at Rosemont School, Wayne, Pennsylvania, describes a reading program which increases children's enjoyment of reading and, by means of individual attention, helps them to become better readers. Selected references in the sub-

ject fields have been prepared by the following persons: MAURICE L. HARTUNG, associate professor of education, University of Chicago; RICHARD R. SMITH, science teacher in the Laboratory School, University of Chicago; MARY R. SWEITZER, music teacher in the Laboratory School, University of Chicago; ROBERT D. ERICKSON, art teacher in the Laboratory School, University of Chicago; HAZEL SHULTZ, assistant professor of home economics, Indiana University; SARA INNIS FENWICK, teacher-librarian in the Laboratory School, University of Chicago; D. K. BRACE, chairman of the Department of Physical and Health Education, University of Texas; HOMER J. SMITH, professor and head of the Department of Industrial Education, University of Minnesota; and KENNETH D. NORBERG, associate professor of education and co-ordinator of audio-visual services at Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California.

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SOME FRONTIER ISSUES IN EDUCATING ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS

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AN ISSUE may be thought of as "a point in debate on which the parties involved hold conflicting positions." There are many such points in teacher education. The term "frontier" is used here to identify certain issues in the pre-service education of elementary-school teachers which, if not new in point of time, are being subjected to fresh inquiry. In many parts of the country these issues are being discussed and examined, and experimentation concerned with them is taking place. Such issues may be described as being at the "cutting edge" of insight into teacher education.

The purpose of this paper is to analyze several of these frontier issues and to clarify some of the positions held regarding them, as well as the practices and approaches to pre-service education that tend to result. In a recent year of visitation to colleges and universities, the writer found the issues selected to be prominent in the thinking of many persons engaged in teacher education. He has deliberately sharpened alternatives until they appear directly adverse, whereas, in reality, they usually are at different

points on a continuum. Resulting practice represents a blending of choice and compromise rather than unwavering commitment to one position.

The need for brevity results in a terseness of presentation. Subsequent articles in this journal by the present writer will be devoted to more thorough analysis of each issue and presentation of illustrative practice.

THE PROFESSIONAL SEQUENCE

What constitute the professional aspects of the elementary-school teacher's education is in itself an issue. But let us move quickly from this consideration and accept the popular conception that professional education is "that part of the curriculum designed to focus upon the nature of education and the theory and practice of teaching." The issue here arises out of two conflicting ideas of the purpose of this phase of the college curriculum:

1. The purpose of courses in education is to develop in the student an understanding of those concepts—historical, philosophical, psychological, anthropological, sociological, and the

like—upon which the study of education is based.

2. The purpose of courses in education is to induct the student into the nature, demands, rewards, and opportunities of the teaching profession.

Neither position denies that the attainment by students of certain skill in teaching is a desired outcome of professional courses in education. Provision of some kind of directed teaching activity in the curriculum is consistent with both positions. The essential difference between them is a function of purpose. In the first, the "foundations" approach, students are introduced to educational institutions and to human development with a view to developing insight into the nature of these institutions and of man. It is anticipated that skill in the application of the principles will result. In the second, the "professional-orientation" approach, students are introduced to schools and children with a view to developing skill in performing management and teaching tasks. It is anticipated that diversity and depth of insight into education will result.

Frequently, the focal point at which differing positions affect the program is the introductory course in education. Exponents of the first alternative insist that the approach of the introductory course be historical, philosophical, or a synthesis of several foundation fields. Exponents of the second alternative insist that this is the place to introduce the student to what may become his lifework and to

guide him in making intelligent decisions about it. Some blissfully undecided souls provide for, and condone, either approach, leaving the student to arrive at an intelligent decision (not too much affected, we hope, by such intriguing variables as the hour of the classes and the temperament of the instructor).

Determining the nature of the professional sequence need not be an issue. The problem need not be, really should not be, of the "either-or" variety, but the fact that it so frequently is produces one of our basic issues in the education of elementary-school teachers.

LABORATORY EXPERIENCES PRIOR TO DIRECTED TEACHING

The term "laboratory experiences," in common educational parlance, is used to classify the prospective teacher's direct contacts with the schools and other community agencies responsible for performing educational functions. The basic issue in connection with these experiences arises out of the way in which they are utilized in curriculum organization. It is a specific point within the larger issue, identified earlier, pertaining to the professional sequence as a whole. But the over-all issue poses a philosophic question: What should the professional sequence seek to do? The present issue arises out of how desired ends will be sought. It centers in a psychological question: How is direct experience best utilized in the promotion of learning? Alternative positions in re-

gard to this issue, in their extremes, shape up somewhat as follows:

1. Direct experience is utilized to the degree that it helps clarify certain fundamental concepts.

2. Direct experience constitutes the focal point of the curriculum; fundamental concepts emerge as prospective teachers work with learners and institutions.

Obviously, either position offers ample room for variation in practice among its exponents. The difference between them is essentially a difference in approach to the selecting of organizing centers for learning. In the first approach, instruction is organized around topics, such as growth characteristics of children, social structure of American communities, and the organization of the public school system. During their study of these topics, prospective teachers observe and work with children, visit social agencies, and participate in school activities. In the second approach, instruction is organized around planned contact with children, social agencies, and schools. Presumably, these contacts stimulate interests and lead the student into study designed to broaden and deepen his insights. He learns principles of child development, American social structure, and school organization as a result.

Few educators would be willing to indorse the first approach to the extreme of excluding all direct experience. Likewise, few would indorse the second to the extreme of including only a series of direct contacts with

children, schools, and the larger community. Practice falls between these extremes. But the educator's basic position profoundly affects the ultimate organization of programs.

DIRECTED TEACHING

Even those who decry professional education for teachers as an unsightly smear on the college escutcheon usually admit the desirability of some directed teaching prior to ultimate placement, even though they are frequently unwilling to allow displacement of college subjects for this "trades" activity. Among those who indorse directed teaching as an essential part of the teacher's education, there is considerable disagreement over such matters as timing, optimum length of the teaching period in relation to returns from it, activities that should accompany directed teaching, and so on.

The real issue, and not a particularly controversial one at present, is the degree of control that should be exercised by the college over the placement positions. There are those who argue that placement of prospective teachers in classrooms that violate sound principles of learning and teaching actually does more harm than good. It would be preferable, they say, for these young people to go directly into their own classrooms, uncontaminated by an intervening period with drab and uninspiring exponents of rote and recitation. Young teachers tend to perpetuate what they observe, they argue. If these prospective teach-

ers cannot observe that which is desirable, it is better that they should observe nothing at all. The laboratory school, completely controlled by those responsible for teacher education, is proposed as a solution. Prospective teachers would remain in it until their vision of desirable elementary-school practice had expanded to the point of effective discrimination.

On the other hand, many persons engaged in teacher education indorse the position that directed teaching, to be realistic, must be conducted in the kinds of schools and classrooms in which prospective teachers ultimately will teach. They recognize the danger of undesirable placements but argue that efforts must be directed toward improving the quality of positions available and exercising care in making placements. Whether or not exponents of this position recognize a significant role for the laboratory school in the total program, they indorse directed teaching in the public schools as the capstone of the elementary teacher's professional education.

SPECIAL FIELDS

One of the most controversial issues in the education of elementary-school teachers arises out of this question: What should be the program in special fields for prospective teachers in elementary schools? It is recognized that these teachers must work with children in such areas as art, music, and physical education, all of which usually are included in any consideration

of special fields. Representative conflicting positions regarding the issue are these:

1. The essential consideration is that prospective teachers be themselves well educated in what they are to teach. The special techniques required for teaching may be acquired in a general-methods course or in directed teaching.

2. The basic considerations in certain areas, such as art education, music education, and physical education, are sufficiently unique and complex to warrant college study designed to prepare the teacher for guiding children in them.

The reflection of each of these alternatives on the teacher-education program is relatively clear. When the first philosophy is paramount, teachers select, from the general college curriculum, courses in art and music appreciation and in physical education. Sometimes studio courses in art and music are available. These courses are designed to contribute to the general education of the student, regardless of his vocational intent. The prospective teacher is expected to make whatever adaptations and interpretations seem appropriate to his ultimate work.

When the second philosophy prevails, opportunity is provided for the prospective teacher to study principles of art, music, and body development as they apply to the education of children. The general studio and appreciation courses may or may not

be included as part of the teacher's education. In its extreme form, this philosophy is applied to such areas as arithmetic, social studies, science, and so on—through the whole length and breadth of the elementary-school curriculum.

This issue of the special fields is, in essence, the identical issue that underlies the larger, time-worn controversy: Need prospective teachers gain more from their college education than competence in certain subject-matter areas? Much paper and ink have been put to little use in debating this question, and the writer has no intention of further wasting our resources. But it is interesting to note that the "Great Debate," so long waged by campus factions, is duplicated in smaller dimensions within the faculty group specifically committed to the education of elementary-school teachers.

AUTHORITY AND RESPONSIBILITY

The issues arising out of organization of, and administration for, the education of elementary-school teachers are many. This section is devoted to only one—the designation of authority and responsibility for teacher education within the university structure. Conflicting positions on this issue that commonly may be identified in practice are these:

1. The needs of prospective teachers in regard to general, special, and professional education are many. The resources of the entire institution of higher learning must be brought to

bear if an adequate job of teacher education is to be accomplished. Teacher education is a university-wide responsibility. It follows, then, that authority for the undergraduate education of elementary-school teachers must be invested in the college of arts and sciences, special responsibilities being relegated to individual departments, including the department of education. Such organization is not necessarily inimical to the performance of certain leadership functions by the department of education.

2. The needs of prospective teachers are specialized to the degree that any adequate meeting of them within the traditional liberal arts structure is difficult, if not impossible. Meeting these needs within the standard curriculum, even with the creation of a department of education, poses a strain upon faculty resources and a distortion of liberal arts function that are difficult to justify. The logical solution is the creation of a college or school of education intrusted with the responsibility and the authority for creating programs designed specifically for the education of elementary-school teachers. Such an organization is not necessarily inimical to certain reasonable co-operation across college lines, designed to supplement resources of both the college of arts and sciences and the college of education.

CONCLUSION

These, then, are some of the frontier issues confronting us today in edu-

cating elementary-school teachers. In viewing them, the writer has attempted to maintain an impartial perspective. Where he has failed to do so, the reason may derive in part from his own bias, in part from the fact that certain positions, when carried to extremes, tend to arouse prejudice

against themselves. Subsequent articles, instead of highlighting areas of disagreement between conflicting positions on issues in pre-service education of elementary-school teachers, will focus upon ways of resolving these issues through seeking common ground for program development.

FACTORS TO BE CONSIDERED IN THE INTERPRETATION OF INTELLI- GENCE-TEST SCORES

GRANVILLE B. JOHNSON, JR.

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ONE of the more significant problems confronting individuals concerned with the guidance and education of children and youth is the selection of intelligence tests and interpretation of the obtained results. The manner in which this problem is solved affects the future of each pupil in the particular educational situation in which the test was applied.

The intelligence test is usually given in the hope that some type of prediction regarding academic adjustment will be made. This hope is often so strong that "homogeneous" groups based on performance on a single intelligence test are formed during Grade I or II and rigidly adhered to throughout the pupil's academic life. Tests of questionable merit have been used for this purpose; yet the results have been taken at face value by many teachers, permanently coloring their attitudes toward their pupils and the attitude of many pupils toward themselves.

Is it wise to consider the results of an intelligence test the same way we would the readings from a thermometer or of a weighing scale? An analysis of the limitations of intelligence tests

is essential before we can answer this question.

There are three sources of potential error to be considered in the interpretation of an intelligence quotient. These are to be found in external factors, which relate to the test itself; in internal factors, which include organic and emotional aspects of the individual being tested; and in factors which may be both external and internal and which include the effect of the individual's environment in general.

EXTERNAL FACTORS

In this category, the sources of error in the test itself must be considered. Of primary importance are the reliability and the validity of the test.

Reliability and validity of test.—The reliability of a test depends upon the consistency with which it measures what it does measure, or the degree to which it is internally consistent and the extent to which it yields consistent results.

Not to be dissociated from the reliability is the validity of a test. That is, a test must accomplish the user's purpose and measure what it is supposed to measure so that it may sat-

isfy the fundamental criterion of all testing. Tests cannot be described as valid in general terms, but only with reference to their specific use.

Appropriateness and accuracy of norms.—Another factor to be considered is the appropriateness and accuracy of the norms of the test. This is a major area of difficulty in interpretation of test results. The norms might be modified by the age, sex, locality, race, and background of the individuals on whom the test was standardized. Most intelligence tests were standardized on a "representative sample"; that is, a group of individuals representing the total population were tested and norms were established from their performance. The interpretation of an intelligence quotient for a specific individual, then, would tell us how his performance compared with that of the norm group, but would tell us little about his status in his particular cultural situation.

Type of test: verbal or performance.—Verbal tests rely on knowledge of language and number. Consequently, these tests handicap children who have language difficulties and those who have had limited experiences with the language because they come from homes where English is not the basic language spoken or because they are of different racial or ethnic groups or of different socioeconomic status. Performance, or culture-free, tests have been devised to be used when it is advisable to eliminate the verbal factor, but it has been found that perform-

ance and verbal tests measure somewhat different aspects of intelligence.

Test selected: individual or group.—Although individual tests of intelligence are more reliable and more valid measuring instruments than the group tests, they are much more time-consuming and require more specific training to administer. Group tests are much more practical to apply and give a good measure of the group, though the individual subject's score is less valuable for purposes of prediction.

Group tests, like individual tests, are constructed on the principle that intelligence is a general capacity and that it should be measured by sampling a variety of mental activities. Every group scale is standardized for a specified range of ages or school grades. Thus, the particular types of items used and the levels of difficulty within a scale will depend upon the group for which it is intended. Since group scales are scored more objectively than individual scales, much of the benefit derived from subjective evaluation is lost.

Administration and scoring of tests.—In the administration and scoring of both individual and group intelligence tests, there are many factors which may affect the test score. In the administration of individual tests, the training of the tester is basic to accuracy of results. As has been pointed out, the interpretation of the reaction of the testee during the testing period is highly significant to the examiner. Although directions for administering,

scoring, and interpreting group tests must be rigidly followed, an even greater responsibility is placed on the administrator of individual tests, and his training and experience are even more important.

Rapport, or friendly relations between the examiner and the examinee, is of prime significance and depends on both participants. Without good rapport, the results of both individual and group tests are probably fallacious and should be considered invalid; indeed, without it, there is every reason not to begin testing.

Of the utmost significance in the accuracy of the results on individual and on group tests are the conditions under which the test is administered. Good physical conditions, including lighting, freedom from distraction, and controlled temperature, are essential in a testing situation.

An important source of error in the scoring of these tests is the tendency of many testers to consider an intelligence quotient derived from one test to be comparable to intelligence quotients derived from all other tests of intelligence. It has been pointed out that individual and group tests, as well as verbal and performance tests, tend to yield different intelligence quotients for the same individual. Another factor which must be considered is the variability of the sample upon which the test was standardized. Most intelligence tests have a standard deviation of 16, but some have a standard deviation as low as 12, and others one as high as 20. For example,

an intelligence quotient of 112 (84th percentile) from one test is comparable to an intelligence quotient of 120 (84th percentile) from another test. It is seen, then, that, for many reasons, intelligence quotients may have different meanings, and numerical values of different intelligence quotients may not be comparable.

An individual score itself possesses a variability which depends upon the size of the standard deviation of the sample population and the number included in the sample. This means, for example, that one individual with an intelligence quotient of 110 as measured by a specific test and another individual with an intelligence quotient of 113 on the same test may reverse their positions on the next administration of another form of the same test. It may be concluded, then, that a rigid dividing line between "homogeneous" groups has little justification.

The formation of "homogeneous" groups based on total intelligence-test score is not justifiable for another reason. Intelligence is a composite of aptitudes. Consequently, an individual with an intelligence quotient of 100 may score 120 in the area of mathematics and score 80 in the language area.

INTERNAL FACTORS

The second category of factors, those that are internal, may be divided into two primary groups based on the source of the possible error: organic and emotional.

Organic factors.—Organic difficulties would include disease, poor eyesight or hearing, malnutrition, glandular malfunction, or any other physical illness which might affect the efficiency of intellectual performance.

All the foregoing deep-seated disturbances might affect the pupil's test results and should be considered in the interpretation of test results. There are, however, other physical factors which, though of more transitory duration, might modify performance and consequent results on intelligence tests, particularly in the case of young children. These factors include the immediate organic needs, such as hunger and fatigue.

Emotional factors.—Other intrinsic factors affecting the intelligence-test score are emotional, as evidenced by lack of interest, fear, lack of seriousness, antagonism, shyness, restlessness, and more serious mental disturbances.

Fear is of particular significance. Earlier unfavorable experiences with intelligence tests and their interpretation make many pupils insecure when intelligence tests are administered. The ego threat inherent in tests often results in extreme emotion which assures inefficient performance. Of course, there may be some reason for insecurity, but the concomitant emotion makes it impossible for the pupil to work at optimum efficiency.

Interesting research has demonstrated that group psychotherapy techniques will not only improve personal and social adjustment but will

improve performance on intelligence tests and increase reading speed and comprehension.¹ Performance on an intelligence test is dependent upon reading ability in part, but reduction of emotional tension improves the scores for both reading and intelligence tests and makes the intelligence test a measure of mental capacity rather than of emotionality.

INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL FACTORS

In the third category of factors which must be considered in the interpretation of intelligence-test scores are those which arise from both internal and external sources. They are external in that their source is the environment of the individual, and internal in that they produce changes which affect the individual's performance. This group of factors includes cultural differences influenced by race or language, experience and training influenced by socioeconomic background, age, and sex.

Cultural differences.—Research has demonstrated that intelligence tests standardized on one population must be interpreted differently when applied to members of another group unlike the first (an out-group). This is particularly true where there is a quantitative cultural differential, such as that found in racial and ethnic groups. For example, interpretation of

¹ Granville B. Johnson, Jr., "A Comparison of Two Techniques for the Improvement of Reading Skills at the College Level," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVI (November, 1952), 193-206.

non-white (out-group) performance using white (in-group) norms as criteria usually reveal the non-white out-group average to be considerably below the mean of the white in-group. Of course there is considerable overlap between the groups, but the difference between the means, although a reflection of environmental differential on test results, is a statistically significant one.

Language.—Degree of language attainment is probably reflective of the extent to which the individual has assimilated the elements of the culture of which that language is representative. To illustrate this point, research with persons who are bilingual has demonstrated that the greater an individual's knowledge of English in comparison with his knowledge of another language, the higher will be his intelligence quotient on a verbal intelligence test. Therefore, we may conclude, it is unsound to administer verbal tests to individuals from groups not represented in the sample population from which the norms were derived.

Culture-free or performance tests.—As previously mentioned, one of the methods used for compensating for cultural inequality is to administer intelligence tests which are most free from cultural influence, a factor which is heavily weighted in verbal tests. This relatively culture-free test, known as a performance test, was originally constructed to substitute for verbal tests, but correlational studies have demonstrated that the

performance tests and the verbal tests, though having much in common, are probably not measures of identical factors. Prediction of academic success of the general population is more accurate if based on verbal intelligence quotients than if based on performance.

Performance tests are tests of the development of insightful behavior involving visual perception rather than symbols of language and number. Though they are more modifiable through practice effect than are verbal tests, hence less reliable, they are probably more valid for use with individuals suffering language disabilities, including bilingualism and reading disabilities originating from various physical or psychological sources.

Performance tests are of value in helping to identify children suffering emotional disturbances, who, therefore, may appear at a disadvantage on verbal tests. Another advantage of performance tests is that they afford opportunity for clinical observation; this is true because of the interest they elicit and the variations visible at each step of the task. This subjective analysis, however, requires considerable training.

Experience and training.—Group intelligence tests, because of their basis in school training and in school problems, handicap the poorly trained. Since they do not secure a direct measure of capacity but only a reflection of capacity through experience and training, test results are invalid if the experience and the training of the

individuals to whom the test is administered are not equal to those of the group upon which the test was standardized.

Age.—Although the intelligence quotient has been found to be fairly constant at the later age levels, tests for children are poor predictors of mature intelligence. The intelligence quotient must be evaluated at each age level, with a knowledge of the variability at each level kept clearly in mind.

Sex.—Another factor to consider is the sex of the child. The differences between boys and girls in performance on tests of intelligence are not fundamental ones related to sex itself, but differences related to dissimilarity in experiences, interests, and role.

CONCLUSION

It may be concluded, then, that a knowledge of the intellectual capacities of pupils would be of great value to teachers and workers in all phases of education for prediction of educational adjustments. It is possible for educators to obtain much of this knowledge through use of intelligence tests if the following factors are kept in mind.

1. Select the tests which most nearly suit your purpose for testing. To make the selection requires a knowledge of individual, group, verbal, and performance tests and their statistical foundations.

2. Select the tests which have been demonstrated to be both valid and re-

liable in testing situations similar to your own. This requires a knowledge of the individual and group differences in your situation. Even then, do not put too much credence on the results of one test.

3. If you use standard norms, realize their limitations. If you find them inadequate, prepare local norms.

4. Whichever test you choose, follow closely the directions for administering it. Practice on yourself often before actually administering it.

5. If the test is not machine scored, score it yourself twice.

6. Administer the test under optimum physical and psychological conditions.

7. With both individual and group tests, observe the pupils for factors which may be significant to efficiency of performance, hence to score interpretation.

8. Condition the testees for, not against, intelligence tests. An initial approach in this direction should be to provide pre-service and in-service training for teachers.

9. Understand that intelligence is a composite of factors, in some of which one person may be relatively strong and in others relatively weak.

10. Realize that, even with all these precautions, the intelligence test is still in an early phase of development and that the intelligence quotient cannot be considered as precise, as consistent, or as true a value as is a unit of measure from the thermometer or the weighing scale.

TEACHERS, TESTS, AND TELLING PARENTS

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SINCE the beginning of group mental testing in schools some thirty-five years ago, there has been concern about what to tell parents about the test results. Even today there is little agreement on the question. Some schools release no information about the results, others will give the parent generalized interpretations but no scores, while still other schools give out scores as such.

Absolute secrecy about test scores is hardly defensible in modern education, which stresses co-operation between school and parent in the planning for the child. The reasoning behind the rule which forbids teachers or administrators from revealing the precise intelligent quotient appears to be that parents will misinterpret or misunderstand this score, with unfortunate results to the child. But secrecy breeds misunderstanding and suspicion and may sometimes seriously affect the school's good public relations.

While many educators agree that parents should be told "something" about their children's test scores, there remains the question of *what* they might best hear. In some schools the parents may be told test results in general terms, such as "Johnnie is about average." Experience has shown

that this approach is not entirely satisfactory either, since frequently it whets parents' appetites to know exact scores and breeds resentfulness because of a feeling that the school is hiding something valuable or dealing in half-truths. Furthermore, parents are suspicious of the school contention that the exact score is not too important because they know that, in practice, the school *does* consider the score important, and they feel they should know that score, too. In addition, the generalized interpretations fail to tell the parents all they really should know in order to understand their child and to co-operate intelligently with the school in planning for him.

The major purpose of this article is to suggest a method of talking mental-test scores over with parents so that traditional difficulties can be avoided and parents can be given a better understanding of their child than they could have without knowledge of the scores. A straightforward approach to test interpretation is recommended, one in which scores as such are discussed directly with parents. In the approach recommended, the intelligence quotient becomes only one of several scores involved. Other meaningful scores are presented and inter-

preted to the parent along with the intelligence quotient. This technique helps the parents understand their child's mental makeup better and reduces the emphasis on the intelligence quotient as a sole, all-meaning, measure of mental capacity.

Actually, test scores are of no value unless they describe something about the person who is tested. In interpreting mental-test scores, the intelligence quotient is frequently used as the only descriptive piece of information derived from these tests. In some respects, it is one of the less descriptive, therefore less valuable, pieces of information that can be drawn from tests. Three other scores add much to the meaning of test results. These are (1) the percentile score, (2) the mental-age score, and (3) the grade-equivalent score. These three scores, together with the intelligence quotient, can be used with tremendous value in discussing test results with parents, for together they tell, in an understandable way, just what the test results mean.

WHAT THE FOUR SCORES MEAN

1. *Percentile score.*—The percentile score tells what per cent of children a given child equaled or exceeded in his test. Thus, a child with a percentile score of 75 equals or exceeds in performance three-fourths of the children his age on whom the test was standardized. Use of this score helps compare a child with his group (assuming that the children of the group tested were essentially similar to those on whom the test was standardized—and

tests should be so selected that this similarity exists as much as possible). Telling parents that a child has an intelligence quotient of 90 gives them no idea of the intellectual competition the child faces. Telling them that the child's percentile score is 27 (the percentile equivalent of an intelligence quotient of 90) and that about 73 per cent of the children seem to be better equipped for academic work than he should be more meaningful. Such understandings may be used to help parents see the wisdom of reducing pressure to achieve on the less capable pupil. It may also help parents of bright children see why stimulation on their part may be justified.

2. *Mental age.*—The mental age (M.A.) tells the approximate level of mental maturity of a child. Thus, the pupil who has a mental age of 7-8 is mentally the approximate equivalent of the average child of seven years and eight months, no matter how old he actually is chronologically. It is one thing if the child with a mental age of 7-8 is actually six years old; another if he is around ten. In either case, he probably should be taught more like an average child of seven years and eight months than either a six- or a ten-year-old.

The implications of these facts are generally clear to teachers, but they must be interpreted to parents. Use of the intelligence quotient alone does not give parents (or teachers) this picture of mental-maturity level. It is easier for parents of a ten-year-old to understand the child's problems if they find, from his mental age, that

mentally he is about seven and one-half years old and therefore can be expected to learn, and to some extent behave, like a seven-year-old.

3. *Grade-equivalent score*.—The grade-equivalent score indicates the approximate grade level of achievement that can be anticipated from a pupil making a given score on the mental test. A pupil whose grade-equivalent score is 4.6, for instance, is approximately the mental equivalent of the *average* child in the sixth month of Grade IV. In other words, this child probably has the mental capacity for doing the work of the second half of Grade IV.

Here again is a score that can be interpreted to parents with meaning. The parents can see that a child with a mental capacity for the second half of Grade IV can hardly be expected to do well in a higher grade, even though his actual age might place him there.

4. *Intelligence quotient*.—The fourth type of score which gives insight into a youngster's mental structure is the intelligence quotient itself. Like other scores, this one must be carefully explained to parents. While school people understand the intelligence quotient to be a ratio between mental age and actual age, this concept is difficult for parents to grasp. Perhaps a better way to explain the intelligence quotient to parents is to say that it is an approximate index of the rate or speed at which a child learns and matures mentally. Thus, a pupil with an intelligence quotient of 75 learns material about three-fourths as fast as the *average* child his age, while the

child with an intelligence quotient of 130 learns about 30 per cent faster than average. The former child is also maturing (or "growing up") mentally about three-fourths as fast as the average child, while the second child is maturing nearly a third faster than average. Parents can then be shown how this condition influences the speed and difficulty level at which the teacher presents new materials and how this, in turn, gives clues as to how fast the pupil progresses through a graded course of study.

ADVANTAGE OF THE FOUR SCORES

The teacher or the administrator now has four scores to use in explaining mental-test results to parents. He no longer has to rely on, or to overemphasize, the intelligence quotient but can actually, and truthfully, de-emphasize it. Using the four scores, the teacher can give parents a good idea of how far their child has developed mentally, how fast he continues to develop and learn, how he compares with other children, and what grade level he can be expected to achieve. These combined scores give a fairly good total picture of the child's mental capacity for school achievement. In upper grades they have implications for the child's future vocational and educational planning.

In addition, some tests give results in terms of more than one kind of intelligence. Thus, there may be a score for general intelligence, one for verbal intelligence, one for reasoning, one for nonverbal ability, and so on. These subscores can be used to give parents

an even sharper picture of their child's abilities, for they will show both strengths and weaknesses in specific mental abilities. Use of tests which give not just one but several mental-ability scores avoids even further reliance on a single measure of intelligence and, in addition, gives a more definitive picture of mental structure.

WHERE TO GET THE FOUR SCORES

In a multiple-score interpretation of intelligence tests, the teacher may wonder where he can obtain scores other than the intelligence quotient. The answer lies partly in the specific test used. Some tests yield only one score—a simple intelligence quotient. Other tests may be designed to provide as many as from twelve to fifteen different, usable scores. Some tests give only scores of general intelligence; others yield subscores for various specific intellectual abilities. Probably the best all-round job of intelligence testing, both in terms of understanding children and counseling with parents, is done when tests giving multiple scores are used.

Some tests and their manuals are set up with tables giving percentiles, mental ages, and grade equivalents directly. In these cases, of course, finding all four scores is simple enough. With tests yielding only a single intelligence quotient based on a raw score, some of the other scores may be computed. The mental age is found by multiplying the child's age by his intelligence quotient and dividing by one hundred. Age must first be con-

verted into months or years, with months in tenths; for example, 7 years, 6 months equals 90 months, or 7.5 years. The grade-equivalent score is the grade level at which the *average* child with a given mental age would be. Thus, if the average age for beginning first grade is five years and nine months, then children with mental ages of 5-9 would have a grade-equivalent score of 1.0. A child six months older in mental age (6-3) would have a grade equivalent of 1.5; one of mental age of 6-9 a grade equivalent of 2.0, and so on. The percentile score must be determined by a table. If it is not provided in the test manual, one can usually be found in a standard textbook on statistics.

Not all tests are equally amenable to use of the four-score interpretation. Since some aspects of developing these scores are rather technical in nature, the teacher is urged to consult the school's measurement specialist, guidance consultant, or psychologist for assistance in working them out when they are not given in the manuals.

STRATEGY WITH PARENTS

In counseling with parents about their children's mental ability, it is first necessary to make sure that they understand why mental tests are given and, in a general sort of way, what the tests are. Parents' suspicions and fears of the test itself must be reduced before they become emotionally ready to accept interpretations of the scores. Parents can easily be shown the tests themselves. Explanations can

be given of how the test items sample pupils' abilities (such as reasoning) which are also used in mastering school work.

The limitations as well as the values of testing should be pointed out, and the fact may be stressed that test results represent only one method (but a good one!) of many used by teachers to study and understand children. Parents must be assured that the results are not used to classify children with mechanical finality or to pass or fail them. The greatest use of tests is in providing information difficult to obtain in any other manner, which will enable the teacher to understand better the child's mental nature and do a better job of instructing him.

Occasionally the parent rejects the testing completely, saying that he "doesn't believe in tests" or that "intelligence can't be measured." In such a case, the teacher need not feel it necessary to try to justify the test on technical grounds. It may well be pointed out that, even though we may not know just how or why they do it, we know from long experience that tests do tell us a lot about how children will learn and do give information on how to help them. The teacher would do well to have some actual examples ready to demonstrate this point.

In discussing the test results themselves, the teacher can de-emphasize the intelligence quotient and dwell at greater length on all four scores and on the fuller picture that they give of a child's ability. It should be pointed

out that schools no longer rely on the single intelligence-test score for "telling all" but now use several descriptive scores in analyzing children. The teacher can then go over all the scores, telling what they are and explaining what they *mean* in terms of educational procedures and planning for the child. Sometimes it is helpful to show the parent his own child's test work and to relate his actual efforts on the test to what he can or cannot do in the classroom. If a recent achievement test is available, work and scores on it can frequently be related to the intelligence-test findings with great meaning. Previous intelligence-test scores may also prove helpful in demonstrating the idea of mental growth or maturation.

An honest, but tactful, approach seems the only one justified in discussing results with parents. Teachers are frequently fearful of parents' reactions to low scores. They seek to avoid these reactions by misrepresenting the scores, implying that the tests and their results do not mean much, or giving false hope that the child's mental capacity will improve in time. Such counseling may make the parents feel better, at least for the moment, but it is basically dishonest and ethically indefensible. Furthermore, when the child fails to perform as well as the parents were led to anticipate he would, misunderstanding and often bitterness result. Honesty is certainly the best policy in test interpretation.

Honesty need not be unkind when

low scores are at hand. Parents should be told about what level of mental development their child has reached, what grade-level work he can do, and how fast he can learn. All these data should be explained, not recited. Kindliness and sympathetic understanding should be shown by the teacher. The teacher can always find areas of good work and good ability to demonstrate to the parents as a counterbalance to the mental-test results when the latter are low. Questions should be answered honestly, with both pessimism and overoptimism avoided. The parents should leave the conference with real understanding of the scope of their child's abilities and with a feeling of satisfaction with the school and teacher for having helped them to gain this insight.

Teachers recognize that parents, like children, are different. Accordingly, the method and the extent of test interpretation that they should use will vary from one parent to the other. Some parents may, indeed, be so violently upset over the results as to warrant withholding them. Such instances are rare, however, and are becoming rarer as good interpretation continues. These rare cases do not justify withholding valuable information from all parents. Almost always, if the teacher proceeds with patience and tact, using all available information a test can give to explain mental-test scores, the result will be a better understanding of the child by the parents. This understanding, in turn, will provide a basis for much more effective home and school co-operative planning.

AN INDIVIDUALIZED READING PROGRAM FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

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WITH television, the movies, youth organizations, and other aspects of modern life making their demands on the time of today's children, the elementary-school teacher is faced with the necessity of developing an interesting, stimulating reading program that will encourage the child to recognize the values and pleasures to be found in books.

Recent studies show that the traditional "group" method of teaching reading fails to maintain the interest of the child and, furthermore, that it is an inefficient way of using the limited time available to most teachers for reading instruction.

The individualized reading program, which has been recommended by several authorities,¹ is a workable, satisfying way to meet the needs of

children in reading. This article discusses the merits and techniques of an individual method which the writer has used in his own classes.

Basic to the success of an individualized reading program is the philosophy that children should learn to assume considerable self-direction and self-control as they mature. Only when the pupils in a class have developed to the point where they can read and work independently for short periods without constant direct supervision by the teacher, can this program have any chance for success. Individualized reading may be initiated in any grade, from I to VI, when this situation has been realized.

Certain materials are essential before this individualized program can be initiated. A wide variety of books must be readily available in the classroom or in the school library. It is desirable to have eight or ten copies each of a number of good basal readers. In addition, there should be as many fiction and nonfiction books on different levels as the teacher and children can accumulate. The pupils can be urged to bring in their books to share with the group. Bookmobiles or county circulating libraries are often able to

¹ a) Alvina Treut Burrows, *Teaching Children in the Middle Grades*, chaps. ix, x. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1952.

b) Frances Maib, "Individualizing Reading," *Elementary English*, XXIX (February, 1952), 84-89.

c) Bessie Maxey, "An Individualized Reading Program," *Instructor*, LXII (January, 1953), 47, 78.

d) Staff of the Maury School, Richmond, Virginia, *Teaching Reading in the Elementary School*. Richmond, Virginia: Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1941.

supplement the school or class library. Many public libraries are happy to lend fifty or sixty books to a teacher for use in the reading classes, and parent-teacher groups often purchase additional books for schools. At any rate, a good selection of readers and outside reading materials is essential to the success of an individualized program.

It is necessary that pupils be oriented to the several procedures, particularly if they are intermediate-grade children who have been used to "grouping" in reading. Each individual in the class must realize that his progress in reading depends on his own efforts and that a certain independence is required. Self-selection of reading materials is the key to individualized reading. Therefore, children should understand that they are to have in their possession at all times a book of their own choice. Each child is also encouraged to keep a record in his notebook of the reading that he does. A notation of title, author, and a brief comment on each book or article or story read is sufficient. Those pupils with word trouble should be urged also to keep a vocabulary list, to which they add as they read. Finally, the pupils should understand that the teacher will help them to improve their reading through individual and group conferences and instruction.

Following orientation of the children, the program involves the following activities:

1. Individual conferences of 3-10 minutes between teacher and child.
2. Silent reading in books or of stories of the child's own choice.
3. Teaching sessions with small groups of children, in which instruction in all types of reading skills is given.
4. The grouping of children who have selected the same story. The group will read and discuss the story together.
5. The use of a short period in which children spontaneously talk about books and stories which they have just read, with the thought that others in the class might be interested in reading them also. The entire class participates in this activity.
6. The provision of time for some children to work on their individual reading lists or to study their individual vocabulary lists.
7. Provision for small groups to engage in creative work growing out of common reading. For instance, some children may be preparing a play.

The flexibility of the individualized reading program is such that the teacher may use any combination of these activities according to the needs of the children. Each of these procedures will now be discussed in some detail.

At the beginning of each reading period those children who need new books will do some browsing and exchanging in the class library. The other children will settle down to silent reading. With the class thus employed, the teacher is free to begin some of the activities described above with individuals or with small groups.

THE CONFERENCE

In a reading program involving, for instance, five daily periods of forty-

five minutes each per week, at least two of the periods should be devoted to the individual conference, which is an outstanding feature of individualized reading. While the teacher is conferring with children, one by one, at his desk, the remainder of the class are reading silently in the books that they have chosen. Assuming a class size of thirty-five and an average of five minutes to a conference, the teacher would be able to work with each child in this manner about once every two weeks. In these conferences the following things are accomplished:

1. The child's reading list and vocabulary list are checked to note his progress since the last conference. The teacher may discuss with the pupil some of the books and stories that the child has read. (It should be noted here that it is necessary to maintain a card file or a loose-leaf notebook with a card or page for each child. Here are noted previous reading-test data; the date of each conference, with observations made by the teacher; and a brief record of the child's reading since the last conference. This record is not difficult or time-consuming to maintain, since the jottings are made during the conference or immediately thereafter.)

2. A second conference activity might be a discussion of the book that the child is reading and some oral reading by the pupil in a section that he has already covered. Difficulties in word analysis and other skills can be pointed out to the child, and a notation made on his card so that future drill can be provided for him.

3. The child can be urged to tell part of the story he is reading or to discuss a particular part. Some idea of the extent of his comprehension can be gained in this manner.

4. The teacher can guide the child into the selection of books suitable to his own

level and interests. The better the teacher's knowledge of children's literature, the more stimulating can be his help to the pupil. New books in the class library can be recommended; and through checking the child's reading list to date, a greater variety of reading can be encouraged.

A typical record on a child after such conferences and a series of diagnostic reading tests might look something like this:

CAROL (SIXTH GRADE)

OCT. 27—Now reading *Robin Hood* edited by G. C. Harvey. Seems to be getting quite a bit from her reading. Reads well orally. No trouble with phonics.

Nov. 13—No word-list progress. No comments on book list; has listed titles and authors, however.

Has read *Maida's Little Shop*, *Maida's Little House*, *Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch*, *The Lost Locket*, *Babe Prays for a Miracle*. Now reading *Whispering Statue*. Oral reading good. No troubles.

Iowa Silent Reading Test, Form AM: 81st percentile. Low only in rate and alphabet. Will need drill on these two skills.

Weekly Reader Diagnostic Test: High in all aspects.

[NOTE: The reading tests can be administered periodically throughout the year to the entire class at one time. Development of areas in which a pupil is shown to be weak can then be undertaken.]

SILENT READING

When not in conference with the teacher or otherwise engaged in another activity, the child is to assume the responsibility of reading at his seat. He may be busy with his library book or with a particular exercise recommended by the teacher in a basic reader to improve one of his weaker

areas. In any event, when children learn to proceed quietly and directly to their own reading at the beginning of the period, the teacher can begin the conferences and other features of the individual reading program.

WORK-STUDY SKILL SESSIONS

On one of the days when conferences are not being held, the teacher may call up to the front of the room at different times groups of children who are having trouble in certain areas. The makeup of these groups will depend on the notes made in the conferences and on data from the diagnostic-reading tests. As the rest of the class continues silent reading, the teacher will stress specific skills only to those who have shown need. In this way, children who already have mastered certain skills are not made to sit through unneeded instruction. Certain sections of the basic readers and of the content books can be effectively used to teach the work-study skills.

GROUP READING

By calling attention to some of the stories in the various basic readers available in the room, the teacher may get a group of pupils interested in reading a particular story. Afterward a group discussion can be held, or short summaries may be written.

For certain teachers, particularly in the primary grades, who feel that much of the basic vocabulary must be learned through the basic reader, several sessions per week of work in the readers could be scheduled. However,

in lieu of the boring and stereotyped daily workbook lessons, some of the individualized program activities discussed here might be utilized to much better advantage, and the children will not come to abhor reading in the process. It should be pointed out also that much basic vocabulary can be taught through other phases of the language-arts program. Therefore, the teacher would have more latitude in the use of the basic readers, and each child would not be forced to read every story regardless of his interest.

SHARING BOOKS

The last ten minutes of several periods each week can be spent in a class activity in which all the pupils share their reading experiences. Children will rise eagerly to tell something about the story or book they have just read, because they selected it themselves. In this manner, it is surprising how much motivation for future reading takes place without the teacher participating at all. What a contrast between this method and the formalized book report which deadens interest in reading and incurs the enmity of the child! The teacher can also say a few words at this time about some of the books he has read and can put in a few "plugs" for stories he thinks the children might enjoy.

READING AND VOCABULARY LISTS

Some children during the period will be bringing their reading lists up to date. The information desired on these sheets has already been indi-

cated. The comments made by the child on each selection read should reflect his reaction to the book, article, or story. This method of recording is so easy that children actually enjoy seeing their lists grow.

The vocabulary lists are somewhat more difficult to compile. As the child reads, he hesitates to stop and look up words that he cannot figure out from the context. Understandably, he does not want to break the continuity of the story. A solution is to use a blank piece of paper for a bookmark. On this can be recorded hard words and the numbers of the pages on which the words occur. When he finds a good stopping place, the child can look up the words and transfer them, with their meanings, to his notebook for further study. He can then check the words in their context to fill in his comprehension of the passage he has just read. On the other hand, some children will prefer to look up words as they are met. The extent to which this technique is used will depend on the teacher's philosophy of vocabulary development.

CREATIVE WORK

Some of the children, particularly the good readers, can be guided into some type of skit or dramatic work, based on the common reading of a book or story. Such activities will suggest themselves after the remainder of the program is functioning smoothly and the teacher has a little time to observe the individual pupils at work.

EVALUATION

Before summarizing the advantages of the individualized reading program, a word about evaluation is indicated. Although the teacher will not have a great list of workbook marks for each child, a sounder evaluation of the children's progress in reading is possible if the procedures described above are carried out. Interpretation of a pupil's work in terms of marks will of course depend on the marking system used by the teacher or the school concerned.

ADVANTAGES OF THE INDIVIDUALIZED READING PROGRAM

Experience and experiment have indicated that the individualized reading program has the following advantages:

1. The psychological effect of the program on the child is favorable. Pressures and tensions to meet standards of a traditional reading group are eliminated. There is no stigma about what is read or the amount of material covered. Group competition is minimized.

2. Actually, an individual program results in the reading of consistently larger amounts of material than does the traditional program.

3. Reading speed is accelerated.

4. The amount of time spent in actual reading is increased, and consequently more words are learned through the context.

5. The program is flexible and provides maximum efficiency in the use of

time. The teacher has more time to spend with each child.

6. The program tends to eliminate undesirable attitudes toward reading.

7. The entire reading time is devoted to the individual child, his problems and interests. Slow readers get results. Fast readers enjoy their reading.

CHILDREN'S RESPONSES

Teachers who have initiated the individualized method invariably get tremendous positive response from the children. Following are typical comments from a sixth-grade class after several months of individualized reading:

I like the way of selecting your own books. Somebody doesn't push a book in front of you and say that you have to read it.

I like the books up in the front of the room. Gee, it's just like a regular library.

Sometimes before when we *had* to read reading books all the time and answer questions every day, I used to dread reading class. Now I look forward to it.

I like keeping my own word list. If I just read along without putting them down, I wouldn't learn new words. And it doesn't interrupt my reading.

It's not very good to be in a group. Some people read faster than others and you don't have anything to do but sit around half the time.

I think the conference is a good idea. If you don't understand something, the teacher helps you.

I feel freer talking to the teacher in a conference than I did in a group.

It's good to have a word list and a book list. I know what I've done.

Teachers who have successfully carried out the individualized plan of reading could add many more like comments to this list.

A WORD FOR THE TEACHER

The teacher who would try this program must first have the objectives and techniques well in mind. The necessary materials must be at hand. Above all else, the teacher should realize that individualized reading must be developed gradually, especially in the primary grades. Parts of the program may be adopted as the children are ready for them. If the class has been accustomed to a group approach, the individualized program may be worked in by degrees. Always the teacher must keep in mind the level of maturation of his children and such factors as their attention span. To the teacher who conscientiously develops an individual reading program will come the grateful thanks of children who are improving their skills and really enjoy reading at the same time.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

III. THE SUBJECT FIELDS—*Continued*



THIS LIST of references is the third of the annual series relating to instruction at the elementary-school level. The first list contains items on the curriculum, methods of teaching and study, and supervision. The second list contains items grouped under the following subject fields: reading, English, spelling, handwriting, the social sciences, and geography. The present list covers the remaining subject fields at the elementary-school level and is the last of the series on elementary-school instruction.

In this issue an additional aid for educational workers is supplied by a list of films given at the end of the list of publications in the various subject areas. The films listed are suitable for use by teachers in the several fields of instruction.

ARITHMETIC¹

MAURICE L. HARTUNG
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570. BALDWIN, WILLIAM E. "Number Forms: A Common Type of Synesthesia," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLV (November, 1952), 510-12.

A brief account of psychological investigations of types of imagery associated with numbers, as found in some individuals.

571. BLOUCH, ADELAIDE. "The Contribution of Arithmetic to the Study of Geography," *School Science and Mathematics*, LII (December, 1952), 697-702.

Discusses, and quotes from, geography materials for the middle grades to show need for mathematical concepts of area, per cent, distance, size, latitude, and the like.

572. BROWNELL, WILLIAM A. "The Effects of Practicing a Complex Arithmetical Skill upon Proficiency in Its Constituent Skills," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLIV (February, 1953), 65-81.

Before and after instruction in division by a two-place divisor, tests of constituent subskills involved were administered to seventeen fifth-grade classes in three cities. Both gains and losses in performance on subskills occurred. Brownell concludes, among other things, that it is safer to attribute loss in proficiency to retroactive

¹ Item 438 (Gray) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1953, issue of the *Elementary School Journal* includes the following article which deals in whole or in part with arithmetic in relation to reading: "What Are the Goals of Instruction in Arithmetic and Mathematics and the Grade Sequence of Understandings and Skills?" by F. Lynwood Wren and three articles under the title "Methods of Increasing Competence in Interpreting Reading Materials in Arithmetic and Mathematics": "In Kindergarten to Grade Three" by Herbert F. Spitzer, "In Grades Four to Six" by Herbert C. Rudman, "In Grades Seven to Fourteen" by Kenneth B. Henderson.

See also Item 663 (Mammel) in this list.

inhibition from the new complex skill than it is to attribute improvement to practice on that skill. Gains may be produced by factors (such as individualized remedial instruction) which are not necessarily involved in practice on the complex skill.

573. DAWSON, DAN T. "Number Grouping as a Function of Complexity," *Elementary School Journal*, LIV (September, 1953), 35-42.

An experimental investigation of the effect of the form of representation of a group upon the recognition of its numerosness.

574. GIBB, E. GLENADINE. "A Review of a Decade of Experimental Studies Which Compared Methods of Teaching Arithmetic," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVI (April, 1953), 603-8.

Summarizes eight studies in terms of the nature of the problems attacked, the methods of teaching used, the experimental setting, and the conclusions reached by the investigators.

575. GLENNON, VINCENT J., and STUDENTS. *Teaching Arithmetic in the Modern School*. Number 2 in a Series of Monographs on the Teaching of Arithmetic. Syracuse, New York: Bureau of School Service, School of Education, Syracuse University, 1953. Pp. x+140.

Consists largely of outlines of units designed for teaching in arithmetic in connection with selected social applications. Grade-level range is from kindergarten to Grade VIII. Outlines list objectives, learning experiences, suggestions for evaluation, and bibliographies.

576. HALL, JACK V. "Business Uses of Mental Arithmetic in Ellensburg, Washington," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVI (January, 1953), 365-69.

Reports interviews with 126 business men and women representing 62 occupations. The results suggest that problems to be solved mentally should be included in the arithmetic curriculum and that children

should be taught to deal with them through sensible use of number relations.

577. HARVEY, LOIS FULCHER. "Improving Arithmetic Skills by Testing and Re-teaching," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (March, 1953), 402-9.

Describes a one-semester program of remedial instruction in sixth-grade arithmetic, with special attention on the treatment of zero in multiplication.

578. HUPP, CAROL STONE. "The Slide Rule as Motivation for Arithmetic," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (December, 1952), 229-31.

A description of the experiences of members of a fourth-grade class in learning to use a slide rule.

579. LEARY, BERNICE E. "Improving Reading Skills in Mathematics and Science," *High School Journal*, XXXVI (October, 1952), 17-21.

Brief comment on difficulties encountered by students in reading mathematics, with suggestions to teachers.

580. MECH, E. VICTOR. "Performance in a Verbal Addition Task Related to Pre-experimental 'Set' and Verbal Noise," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXII (September, 1953), 1-17.

Although the arithmetic aspects of this study are incidental, the psychological concept of "set" and the experimental determination of its effect upon achievement under conditions of noise or quiet should be of interest to teachers of arithmetic.

581. MORTON, ROBERT LEE. *Teaching Children Arithmetic*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1953. Pp. xvii+566.

This new methods book by an established author in the field has fewer controversial points of view than some other recent books and will probably be frequently quoted in discussions of arithmetic-teaching.

582. ORLEANS, JACOB S., and WANDT, EDWIN. "The Understanding of Arithmetic Possessed by Teachers," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (May, 1953), 501-7.

Discusses the results of a testing program designed to measure understanding rather than computational skill.

583. PERRY, DALLIS K. "Speed and Accuracy of Reading Arabic and Roman Numerals," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXVI (October, 1952), 346-47.

Three sets of numbers were presented to college Seniors and graduate students in both Arabic and Roman numerals, and the rate and accuracy of oral reading were measured. Rate was lower and errors increased when the Roman numerals were compared with the Arabic.

584. PHILLIPS, CLARENCE. "Background and Mathematical Achievement of Elementary Education Students in Arithmetic for Teachers," *School Science and Mathematics*, LIII (January, 1953), 48-52.

Presents data on the population of home community, experience, reaction to mathematics, and achievement, as measured by the Hundred-Problem Arithmetic Test, for a sample of students at the University of Illinois.

585. PHILLIPS, CLARENCE. "Five Point Program in the Teaching of Arithmetic," *American Childhood*, XXXVIII (March, 1953), 12-13.

A brief but excellent discussion of modern programs and methods.

586. SHERER, LORRAINE. "Some Implications from Research in Arithmetic," *Childhood Education*, XXIX (March, 1953), 320-24, 346.

Discusses implications of certain types of research studies (children's interests, uses of number, and so forth) which are not primarily focused on computational aspects. Includes a bibliography.

587. WILSON, GUY M., and CASSELL, MABEL. "A Research on Weights and Measures," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVI (April, 1953), 575-85.

Reports a survey of the knowledge of common weights and measures possessed by elementary- and high-school pupils. Concludes that formal instruction is ineffective and that most of the knowledge of measures is acquired through actual experience with them.

SCIENCE

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588. BENGELSDORF, DAVID. "The Elementary Teacher's Task in Science," *Science Teacher*, XIX (November, 1952), 264-66.

Points to the need for understanding by the teacher of the dynamics of the scientific enterprise and its impact on living today. Gives practical suggestions on developing a plan for including science instruction in the elementary school.

589. BEUSCHLEIN, MURIEL, and SANDERS, JAMES M. (compilers). *Free and Inexpensive Teaching Materials for Science Education*. Chicago Schools Journal Supplement, XXXIV (January-February, 1953), 1-48. Chicago: Chicago Schools Journal, 6800 Stewart Avenue.

Comprehensive compilation of free and inexpensive materials listed by topic.

590. BLOUGH, GLENN O. "Elementary School Science—Implications for High Schools" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVII (January, 1953), 38-42.

Outlines the present status of, and variation in, elementary-school science education. Gives suggestions to teachers and administrators on how they may profit from the increasing background in science which high-school pupils bring from elementary school and how they may adapt their science programs to fit.

591. GENTRY, ADRIAN N. "Science for Every Child," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, XXI (November, 1952), 5-27.
Presents a list of objectives of science-teaching in the elementary school and describes, with examples, how certain teachers in California schools are solving the problem of what science to teach and how to teach it.
592. GENTRY, ADRIAN N. "Science for Every Teacher," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, XXI (November, 1952), 28-39.
Summarizes some of the in-service training practices provided for teachers of science in California.
593. HAINFELD, HAROLD. "Using Television in Elementary Science Classes," *School Science and Mathematics*, LIII (March, 1953), 225-26.
Discusses the role of television in education and lists a limited number of science telecasts now being offered by commercial stations.
594. HARMON, MILLARD. "Science Need: A Broader Base in Elementary Grades," *Clearing House*, XXVII (November, 1952), 169-71.
Explains the necessity for directive science programs in elementary-school grades and discusses curricular developments in respect to junior high school and senior high school science courses.
595. KAMBLY, PAUL E. "The Elementary School Science Library for 1951-1952," *School Science and Mathematics*, LIII (March, 1953), 230-34.
A bibliography of reference books listed under topics, with grade-level recommendations and brief annotations for each book.
596. MEYER, EGGERT. "What Is Elementary Science?" *School Science and Mathematics*, LIII (March, 1953), 235-36.
Discusses the role of educators in providing an elementary-school science curriculum which meets the needs and interest of children living in a technological age.
597. MICHEL, ELSIE. "Elementary Science Field Trips," *Science Teacher*, XX (April, 1953), 137.
Discusses the importance of field trips as a means of providing dynamic learning situations.
598. NUNN, CAROLYN. "Elementary Science Can Be Dramatic," *Science Teacher*, XIX (November, 1952), 277-78.
Describes the role of science when used as a dramatic presentation and culminating activity of a social-studies unit.
599. *Science for Today's Children*. The National Elementary Principal, Thirty-second Yearbook Number, Vol. XXXIII, No. 1. Washington: Department of Elementary-School Principals, 1953. Pp. xii+312.
A yearbook for 1953 in which some of the recognized authorities set forth basic understandings and agreements relative to the role that science should play in the program of today's elementary school. Tells what science can and should do for the children, what aspects of science should be taught and how they should be taught, and how science experiences contribute to child development.
600. STOLLBERG, ROBERT J. "How Can Teachers Obtain Equipment for Elementary School Science?" *California Journal of Elementary Education*, XXI (November, 1952), 47-52.
Considers the advantages and disadvantages of (1) using commercial science kits and (2) collecting science materials through occasional purchase, borrowing, construction, and improvising.
601. STOUGH, MORROW F. "Free and Inexpensive Science Materials for the Elementary Teacher," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, XXI (November, 1952), 53-63.

Explains the types and uses of materials available for science and lists sources of of these teaching aids.

602. THOMAS, R. MURRAY. "Finding the 'Right' Science Program," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (November, 1952), 156-62.

Discusses the advantages and disadvantages of four types of elementary-school science programs.

603. WEST, JEFF B. "Some Characteristics of a Good Science Program," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, XXI (November, 1952), 40-46.

Points out some of the ways that good science programs may contribute to the growth and development of children.

604. ZIM, HERBERT S. *Science for Children and Teachers*. Bulletin No. 91. Washington: Association for Childhood Education International, 1953. Pp. 56.

A booklet for teachers, dealing with the place of science in regard to the child, the daily school program, teaching materials, community resources, the printed page, and learning experiences.

MUSIC

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605. BRODY, VIOLA. "The Role of Body Awareness in the Emergence of Musical Ability: Its Application to Music Education in a Basic Music Course and Critic Teaching," *Journal of Research in Music Education*, I (Spring, 1953), 1-80. Chicago: Music Educators National Conference.

A study of the relation between the recognition of children's physical capacities and their ability to express themselves rhythmically. Points out how the music teacher's knowledge should be used to plan a sequence of musical experiences.

606. KINSELLA, HAZEL GERTRUDE, and TIERNEY, ELIZABETH. *The Child and*

His Music, Lincoln, Nebraska: University Publishing Company, 1953. Pp. 236.

Many suggestions helpful for teachers and students preparing to teach are offered in this "Handbook for Use in the Elementary Grades or in a Small School."

607. KNOWLTON, DOROTHY. "Children Like the Modern," *Music Journal*, XI (February, 1953), 18-20.

Points out that children are attracted to modern music for its own worth and that they are responsive to it and uninhibited in taste.

608. LUNDIN, ROBERT. *An Objective Psychology of Music*. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1953. Pp. ii+304.

Chapters deal with aesthetic responses to music, measurement and prediction of talent, methods of learning music, and improvement of musical performance. Includes particularly interesting chapters on music therapy and music in industry.

609. MURSELL, JAMES. *Music in American Schools*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1953. Pp. iv+312.

This revised edition presents a sensible approach to all phases of music, showing the over-all emphasis of the total music program in singing, rhythms, creating, listening, and playing upon instruments.

610. SOMMER, HOBART. "General Education and the Music Teacher," *Music Educators' Journal*, XXXIX (June-July, 1953), 19-21, 42.

Maintains that the music teacher must realize that he is part of an educational team whose aim is to provide for children a series of experiences that will increase their understandings, appreciations, and skills. In developing the music program, the teacher must keep in mind the objectives and purposes of the general-education program and must work out relations between music and other content areas in co-operation with other teachers.

611. SWIFT, FREDERIC FAX. "Elementary School Music," *New York State Education*, XL (June, 1953), 659-61.

Discussion of changes in music education and the development of such a program in New York State.

612. TAYLOR, BERNARD. "The Music Teacher and the New Music," *Music Journal*, XI (January, 1953), 37-39.

Shows how the teacher may feel at home with the new and modern in music.

ART

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613. ALLNER, WALTER H. "What Makes a Poster," *Design*, LIV (February, 1953), 116-17, 126.

Presents the credo of six top-level poster designers. Examples of strong poster design are included. Suitable for the teacher of poster design.

614. *Art in the Madison Public Schools* (Biennial Report 1950-52). Madison, Wisconsin: Board of Education, 1953. Pp. 80+101 illustrations.

Presents a report of the work in Madison (Wisconsin) public schools. Contents include such titles as "Drawing and Painting," "Design and Crafts," "Development of the Art Program," "Community Relations through the Years," "Interior Decoration of Schools," "Future Possibilities and Statistics."

615. BETTS, VICTORIA BEDFORD. "Brayer and Brush," *Design*, LIV (May, 1953), 180-81.

Presents several suggestions for experimental painting along with a summary and illustrations. Lists materials which may be used. Suitable for Grade I and up.

616. COLLINSON, HUGH, and HOLMES, KENNETH. *Child Art Grows Up*. London and New York: Studio Publications Inc.,

1952. Pp. 96+189 photographs and diagrams.

Presents suggestions for an art curriculum at the elementary- and secondary-school levels. Contents include "Art in General Education," "Pattern," "Picture Making," "Drawing and Painting," "Lettering and Crafts," and "Art and Our Daily Environment."

617. CONRAD, GEORGE. "One Line Does the Work of Many," *Junior Arts and Activities*, XXXIII (May, 1953), 16-19, 49-50, with 7 illustrations.

Presents a clear, concise approach to contour and other fine-line drawing in the classroom. Suitable for Grade IV and up.

618. COWLEY, EDWARD P. "Design Slides," *School Arts*, LII (June, 1953), 358.

Material-collage techniques applied to small (two-inch by two-inch) surfaces are projected for design-study purposes. Suitable for Grade V and up.

619. FLUKER, MARY S. "Enameling on Glass," *Junior Arts and Activities*, XXXIII (February, 1953), 21-23.

Presents guides and suggestions for application of enameling techniques to glass. Includes illustrations. Suitable for Grade VII and up.

620. FREEMAN, MAE BLACKER. *Fun with Ballet*. New York: Random House, 1952. Pp. 64.

Presents a self-instruction book for the beginning ballet enthusiast. Methods most generally used in training ballet beginners are described and pictured in 143 step-by-step photographs.

621. GAITSKELL, CHARLES and MARGARET. *Art Education in the Kindergarten*. Peoria, Illinois: Charles A. Bennett Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. viii+40+16 photographs and 29 diagrams.

Presents a modified report on art education in the kindergartens of Ontario, Canada. The work of some 9,000 children in 425 kindergartens formed the basis for

- the study. Contents include such titles as "Significance of Art Education," "The Art Expressions of Children in the Kindergarten," "The Physical Setting and Materials," "Subject Matter," "Motivation and Guidance."
622. KARASZ, MARISKA. "Abstract Stitches," *Craft Horizons*, XIII (March-April, 1953), 11-15.
- Presents a fresh approach to embroidery and weaving through the experimentation of this creative author. Some of the ideas expressed could be applied in Grade IV and up. Includes nine illustrations.
623. LOFTNESS, SONYA. "Crayon Etching in the Grades," *School Arts*, LII (March, 1953), 234-35.
- Scratch-board techniques are applied to crayon, India ink, and heavy paper. Suitable for Grade II and up.
624. MARESCA, GLENN KETCHUM. "How To Learn To See," *Junior Arts and Activities*, XXXIII (February, 1953), 28-33, 49, 50.
- Presents guides for, and suggestions to, the teacher pointed toward helping the student to see what he wants to draw. Emphasis is placed on looking and understanding.
625. OLSON, DELMAR W. *Pottery: Getting Started in Ceramics*. New York: Grosset & Dunlap, Inc., 1953. Pp. x+114, with 182 illustrations.
- Presents a textbook for the beginning potter, emphasizing tried and proved techniques and methods, with the purpose of helping the beginner to use basic information and techniques as a basis for formulating new ideas. Suitable for Grade VI and up.
626. REID, KENNETH. *School Planning (The Architectural Record of a Decade)*. New York: F. W. Dodge Corp., 1951. Pp. vi+456.
- Presents plans, details, photographs, and layouts of school buildings for every climate and of all sizes and types that were constructed in 1940-49. Valuable material for the teacher when floor plans and space organization are studied.
627. *A Sketch Book by Toulouse-Lautrec*. New York: Curt Valentin, 1952. Pp. x, with 47 sheets of drawings (94 pp.).
- Presents a series of excellent examples of Lautrec's early work. Drawn when Lautrec was sixteen, these drawings in ink, pencil, and crayon include as subjects horses, dogs, and people. Suitable for anyone interested in expressive drawing.
628. SMEDLEY, DELBERT W. "Wire Sculpture," *School Arts*, LII (February, 1953), 199.
- Presents suggestions for class procedure as well as detailed suggestions regarding wire as an art medium. Suitable for Grade IV and up.
629. SURFACE, EVELYN. "Wet Paper and Ink," *School Arts*, LII (June, 1953), 359.
- Describes and illustrates line-feathering through ink experimentation on wet paper. Suitable for any age from kindergarten up.
630. WADSWORTH, BEULA M. "Net Design," *School Arts*, LII (June, 1953), 345.
- Experimentation with darning and weaving for four- to seven-year-olds by using old potato sacks and scrap materials is described and illustrated.

HOME ECONOMICS

HAZEL SHULTZ

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631. BUDOLFSON, MARIE. "Good Management: II. Let's Plan!" *Forecast*, LXIX (January, 1953), 25, 44-46; III. "Making the Most of Your Resources," *ibid.*, (February, 1953), 32, 68.

Second and third in a series of three articles on management in which four steps of management are discussed. Primarily written for secondary-school teachers,

these articles describe techniques that can be applied from elementary-school grades up. The third article has helpful suggestions for teacher use concerning "How right attitude, knowledge, and ability increase accomplishment."

632. FARRIS, IMOGENE, and WOOD, MILDRED WEIGLEY. "Getting Along with Others—A Unit in Relationships for Elementary Level," *Practical Home Economics*, XXXI (October, 1952), 17, 48.

Three problems common to seventh- and eighth-grade levels are discussed: (1) making and keeping friends; (2) enjoying my own family; (3) being a good community friend.

633. FLECK, HENRIETTA. "The Use of Phonograph Records in Home Economics," *Forecast*, LXIX (January, 1953), 10-11, 33.

This article calls attention to the rich educational possibilities of phonograph records by giving specific illustrations of how a few may be used in different areas and at various educational levels of home economics. Also gives sources for records.

634. FLECK, HENRIETTA, and MUNVES, ELIZABETH. "The Use of Slides in Home Economics," *Forecast*, LXIX (May, 1953), 22, 38.

This article, fourth in a series on the use of visual aids in home-economics education, gives some technical help for teachers who wish to make or choose slides as teaching aids.

635. GROVES, CHARLOTTE. "Let's Exchange Ideas," *Practical Home Economics*, XXXI (April, 1953), 8.

Gives suggestions for testing techniques that relieve the monotony of some of the long-established test forms.

636. LUDWIG, DOROTHY. "Charts for Chores," *Forecast*, LXIX (May, 1953), 20-21, 36.

This practical chart presentation of a plan for keeping foods and clothing laboratories

in good order may be applied to almost any school situation.

637. MURPHY, ELEANOR. "School Lunch, Family Style," *Practical Home Economics*, XXXI (November, 1952), 34, 35.

Presents a plan, described largely by pictures, whereby the elementary-school lunch is made more enjoyable through the use of carefully planned pupil participation.

638. RATHS, LOUIS, and FLECK, HENRIETTA. "Application of the Needs Theory in Home Economics," *Practical Home Economics*, XXXI (February, 1953), 18; (March, 1953), 13, 48; (April, 1953), 9, 47; (May, 1953), 14.

A series of four articles designed especially to help teachers of home economics understand the emotional needs of pupils so that they may be prepared to add what little school help is indicated for individual problems. The following eight needs are chosen for discussion: (1) the need for belonging, (2) the need for achievement and recognition, (3) the need for economic security, (4) the need to be relatively free from fear, (5) the need for love and affection, (6) the need to be relatively free from intense feelings of guilt, (7) the need for self-respect and sharing in the values that direct one's life, (8) the need for guiding purposes in understanding the world in which one lives.

639. RESTAINS, RACHEL. "Mothers Preview Graduation Dresses—Ninth-Grade Girls Display Sewing Skills and Treat Mothers to Tea," *Forecast*, LXIX (May, 1953), 17, 34.

Reports briefly a project rich in educational values, not confined to sewing techniques, but including the developing of better taste and judgment in the selection and purchase of designs and fabrics as well as good pupil-mother relations and a sense of pride in accomplishment.

640. RICCI, VERA G. "What Are We Eating Today?" *Practical Home Economics*, XXI (September, 1952), 39, 68.

Describes the organization and conduct of a foods course for boys.

641. RICH, BETH. "Something Can Be Done To Improve Hair," *Forecast*, LXIX (March, 1953), 22-23, 66.

The teacher of teen-agers, sometimes elementary-school pupils, is often confronted with the problem of giving explanations and sound advice on good care of scalp and hair, as well as styling. This article emphasizes the importance of good health as the basis for beautiful hair and gives simple, practical suggestions for brushing, massage, and shampooing as well as a little help for styling.

642. RICH, BETH. "What Does the Mirror Say?" *Forecast*, LXIX (April, 1953), 16, 50.

Another article in the good-grooming series, with emphasis upon skin care, which stresses the basic importance of good nutrition and physiology. Especially valuable for advice as to the benefits and hazards of sun.

643. SAUNDERS, A. PAULINE. "In Pennsylvania All Homemaking Departments Are Getting Equipped To Teach Laundering," *Forecast*, LXI (January, 1953), 22-24.

Emphasizes laundering with specific application to fabrics of home-economics department laboratories. The laundering excerpt from the unit on "Management and care of the home" displays in chart form, objectives, subject matter, activities, references and visual aids.

644. SMALL, ADELE, and NORFLEET, LILLIAN. "United Nations Food Unit," *What's New in Home Economics*, XVII (February, 1953), 66-67, 136; (March, 1953), 32-33, 68.

In this series of two articles, home-making teachers of Junior High School 164, Manhattan, describe their contribution to a school program in which pupils were being taught not only about the foods of different nations but also about each country's geo-

graphical location, chief industries and resources, historical background, national customs, religions, family customs, and cultural contributions to world art, music, and literature. Goals of understanding, appreciations, and skills are given for each unit.

645. SMART, RUSSELL C. "Family Centeredness in Home Economics," *Journal of Home Economics*, XLV (February, 1953), 91-94.

Demonstrates that the concept of "family centeredness" is not a new one in home economics. Points out that the home economists at the time of the Lake Placid Conferences "knew what was right" but emphasizes that the modern concept of family-centered teaching takes account of "relativity" in family living: "The standards of behavior are no longer absolute, in terms of what everyone must do, but relative in terms of what the individual or group is attempting to accomplish."

THE LIBRARY PROGRAM

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646. ANDERSON, HAZELLE M. "Service at the Elementary Level," *Library Trends*, I (January, 1953), 298-310. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Library School.

A survey of the development of the elementary-school library and of its present status in the national education picture, as well as a forecast of the future of this service as a center for all instructional materials and one which serves as a learning laboratory for growth of the individual child.

647. BROWN, ELIZABETH E. "Library Use Is an Attitude," *Wilson Library Bulletin*, XXVII (May, 1953), 734-35.

Emphasizes that the best way to build library consciousness is for librarians to be constantly alert to the needs of faculty and students. Suggests ways to combat non-use of library resources by teachers.

648. CAIROLI, MARY WRIGHT. "The School Library and the Superior Child," *School Activities*, XXIV (October, 1952), 78-80.

A brief article which discusses the resources of the school library, its materials, and its guidance services as a means of implementing a program of enriched learning experiences for the superior child. Useful techniques for the organization of such experiences are suggested.

649. DOUGLAS, MARY PEACOCK. "Plans and Equipment for School Libraries," *Library Trends*, I (January, 1953), 324-32.

Interprets the principles of sound library-planning as they apply to schools of all types and sizes and discusses the physical facilities which best contribute to the expanding program of service designed to meet individual needs of children. Emphasizes that the needs of children and teachers for a school library are not in proportion to the size of the school unit.

650. "The Functional School Library," *American Library Association Bulletin*, XLVII (February, 1953), 52-53, 64-66.

Two articles consider the functional school library. Dilla W. MacBean, director of the Division of Libraries in the Chicago public schools, supplies the first, subtitled "A Librarian Defines It." Benjamin L. Smith, superintendent of schools in Greensboro, North Carolina, supplies the second, subtitled "A Superintendent Looks At It." These provide two approaches to the definition of the objectives and the description of the program of the functional school library as an integral part of the modern school. Essentials in terms of physical equipment, as well as goals for service functions, are discussed, and the potentialities of the centralized library as a materials work-center for the whole school population are established.

651. MCGUIRE, ALICE BROOKS. "Watching the Young Grow in the School Library,"

Library Journal, LXXVIII (September 15, 1953), 1484-87.

An experienced librarian in an elementary school reviews the year's program in terms of growth of individual children as they found guidance and satisfaction in the school library.

652. REED, J. MCLEAN, and WALKER, HELEN E. "Library Service for Elementary School Pupils and Teachers," *Nation's Schools*, L (September, 1952), 57-59.

An evaluation of a program of elementary-school library service at the end of a two-year period of operation, by the superintendent of schools and the library consultant of the Danville (Illinois) public schools. In the program a trained librarian, as consultant, serves eighteen elementary schools. Faculty committees aid in various functions of the library program, and teachers report greatly increased interest in reading. Demonstrates that such a program can be established quickly and economically.

653. WALKER, RUTH L. "A Year with Dick: Child Development and the Library," *Elementary English*, XXIX (October, 1952), 339-47.

Describes the role of the school library in providing resources for the guidance of the individual child and in giving children opportunities for experiencing success in reading and using materials.

654. WHITE, LYNN, JR. "The School Library and the Gifted Child," *Library Journal*, LXXVIII (September 15, 1953), 1480-83.

Discusses the importance of providing opportunities for maximum growth of the children with unusual endowments and points to the role of the library in the school as "the least expensive and most flexible means of giving talented children real opportunity."

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

D. K. BRACE

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655. CAPEN, EDWARD K., and HERD, CARRIE BELLE. "Backyard Play Equipment You Can Make at Low Cost," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIV (January, 1953), 12-13.
Interesting ideas and diagrams to help in the construction of play apparatus at little cost.
656. JOHNSON, MARY LOUISE. "Start Nutrition Teaching Early," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIII (December, 1952), 8-9.
A short article with good suggestions for beginning instruction on nutrition in the lower grades.
657. JOY, BARBARA ELLEN. "And Gladly Would He Learn," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIV (June, 1953), 16-18.
An article which emphasizes the adjustment of camping experiences to fit the needs of individual children.
658. KEPLER, HAZEL. *The Child and His Play*. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co., 1952. Pp. x+310.
A book designed for parents or teachers, dealing with the application of play materials to development of children.
659. LANGERMAN, ROLLAND J. "Planned Fun for Country Kids," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIV (June, 1953), 26-27.
Suggestions are given for successful recreation programs for children in rural areas.
660. LAVE, RUDOLF. "The Rubbish Playground," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIV (April, 1953), 18-19.
An interesting account of how a children's educational playground was constructed in Copenhagen, using cast-off materials.
661. McDONOUGH, THOMAS E., and EMERSON, NORA BELLE. *Rainbow Rhythms: Words and Music*. Emory University, Georgia: Rainbow Rhythms (Box 608), 1952. Pp. 54.
An excellent book for kindergarten and elementary-school grades containing words and music on records for over forty original compositions. Materials include animal imitations, story plays, and singing games arranged in progression.
662. MANLEY, HELEN, and DRURY, N. F. *Education through School Camping*. St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Co., 1952. Pp. 348.
A textbook and a guide to administrators and classroom teachers serving in connection with school camping programs.
663. MEMMEL, RUDOLPH L. "Arithmetic through Play," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIV (June, 1953), 31, 47.
Presents concrete examples of ways in which arithmetic can be taught through various physical-education and play activities.
664. MOUSTAKAS, CLARK E. *Children in Play Therapy*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. 218.
A book planned to give teachers, parents, and others working with children a deeper insight into children's emotions and their relations to play activities.
665. MURRAY, RUTH LOVELL. *Dance in Elementary Education*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1953. Pp. xvi+342.

A clear, concise book designed to help the classroom teacher as well as the special teacher of physical education. Describes methods and materials for the teaching of various forms of dance suitable for elementary schools. Well illustrated.

666. OGAN, ALICE P. "Playday for the Elementary School," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIV (May, 1953), 18-19.

Specific suggestions for the selection of activities and the scheduling of events in a typical playday for elementary schools.

667. TERRELL, EVELYN L., and OTHERS. "School Lunch—Link to Learning," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIV (May, 1953), 6-8, 29-30.

The report of a committee studying ways in which the school-lunch program can contribute to general goals of education, with special reference to health education.

INDUSTRIAL ARTS

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668. ALLEN, WILLARD A. "Student Rating Sheet for Self-evaluation of Projects," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XLII (June, 1953), 183-84.

Sets forth the fairness and the educational value of encouraging or requiring industrial-arts students to judge their own pieces of work. Two types of useful project-rating sheets, differing somewhat as to approach or inclusion of critical items, are shown.

669. DIAMOND, THOMAS. "Planning the New School Shop: Things To Remember So You'll Have the Kind of Shop You Need and Want," *School Shop*, XII (April, 1953), 7-9.

A practical statement, organized in the form of lists of suggestions under the following captions: "General considerations"

(10), "Equipment suggestions" (7), "Making the plan" (8), and "Pertinent planning pointers" (23).

670. *Elementary Industrial Arts, Guide Book, Grades Seven and Eight*. Portland, Oregon: Portland Public Schools, 1953. Pp. 42.

"Outlines the broad, exploratory nature of the program, the processes and materials to be included, the skills to be learned, and the knowledges to be acquired." The chapter headings are "Philosophy of Education," "Organizing and Maintaining the School Shop," "Areas of Experience," and "Evaluation of an Industrial Arts Program."

671. "Good Housekeeping in the Shop: Second in A.V.A.'s Series on School Shop Planning," *American Vocational Journal*, XXVIII (March, 1953), 18-20.

A select committee discusses the educational effect of orderly shops in terms of more learning and efficiency as well as of better work habits and safety practices. Lists fourteen principles to be considered in view of differing work places that require individual planning. Cabinets, panels, stands, and dollies are illustrated, and their special features are indicated.

672. GRASSELL, E. MILTON. "Tool Storage in the School Shop," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XLII (March, 1953), 91-95.

This article is organized under the following headings: "Trends in tool storage facilities," "Safety," "The orientation of tool storage facilities," "The design of tool storage facilities," "Ease in tool checking," "Plans for a suggested tool storage cabinet," and "Conclusions."

673. HACKETT, DONALD F. "Guides for School Shop Planning," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XLII (March, 1953), 114, 26A.

This discussion offers suggestions in varied sets, as follows: "Size, Shape and Location" (8), "Walls, Floors and Ceilings" (6), "Windows and Doors" (9), "Illumination

and Painting" (6), "Equipment" (28), and "Other Considerations" (13).

674. HAUER, NELSON A. "Human Relations and Improved Learning," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XLII (January, 1953), 1-3.

Discusses the increasing interest in human relations and the similarities between conditions obtaining in school shops and industrial shops. Lists twenty-two "Traits Students Like about a Teacher." Likewise, fifty "Teacher-Student Human Relations Factors" are presented in question form for self-analysis by industrial instructors.

675. HILL, CHARLES R. "Research Shows Laymen and Administrators Are Sold on Industrial Education," *School Shop*, XII (January, 1953), 7-26.

A summary report of an opinion study made in Missouri, a rather typical state as to sizes and kinds of schools. Seven hundred administrators, employers, parents, and recent male high-school graduates expressed their beliefs as to the need and improvement of industrial education in both its general and vocational phases. Reports interesting and encouraging reactions to a variety of specific problems.

676. MAUL, RAY C. "Is There A Critical Shortage Ahead in the Industrial Arts Teacher Supply?" *School Shop*, XII (May, 1953), 7-8.

Emphasizes the recent decrease in the number of young men being prepared to teach industrial arts and shows the fact of, and reasons for, increasing need of such school workers. Argues that industrial-arts teachers can render real professional service, of a broad view and of a protective kind, by encouraging their best high-school students to prepare to enter the profession in this specialty.

677. THOMAS, ARCHIE E. "Evaluating and Reporting Industrial-Arts Pupils' Progress," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XLII (May, 1953), 147-49.

Raises questions as to *what* and *when* to mark, the characteristics of an efficient

method of marking, and the appropriate use of tests and progress charts. States why pupils should assist with the marking process and provides a suggested card.

678. TISCHENDORF, E. W. "What You Should Know and What You Should Do about Shop Teacher Liability," *School Shop*, XII (February, 1953), 11-12.

Reviews the need for safety consciousness and instruction and describes the status of teachers and boards of education as to liability for costs and damages growing out of accidents to pupils. State laws and rulings are summarized. Liability insurance is discussed, and mention is made of an American Industrial Arts Association project in the planning of such protection.

679. WALL, GUSTAVE S. "Over-all Requirements for Industrial-Arts Teacher Education," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XLI (December, 1952), 329-31.

Reports findings of an opinion and current-practice poll as to the comparative credit requirements in *general* (cultural) courses, *professional* courses, and *shop and drawing* courses for undergraduates preparing to be teachers of industrial arts. Nearly five hundred departmental staff members, in more than one hundred higher institutions, scattered in more than forty states, recommend practically equal distribution of credit or time for the three types of content.

680. WENGER, PAUL N. "Check List for Planning and Evaluating School Shops," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XLII (March, 1953), 65-67.

A list of sixty-six items in keeping with the title of the article.

681. WILLIAMS, WALTER R., JR., and BERGENGREN, ROY F. (editors). *Who's Who in Industrial Arts Teacher Education*. Yearbook 2 of the American Council on Industrial Arts Teacher Education. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight & McKnight, 1953. Pp. 224.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

C. V. MILLARD and ALBERT J. HUGGETT, *An Introduction to Elementary Education*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. xii+366. \$4.75.

The authors state in the Preface of this volume that they have attempted to meet the needs of three types of students: (1) undergraduates planning to major in elementary education, (2) students who have been graduated from secondary-education curriculums but who now plan to teach in elementary schools, and (3) young men educated for secondary-school teaching who are now planning to become superintendents. For the undergraduates it is an orientation textbook; for the graduates in secondary education, an over-all view of pupils, teachers, methods, and trends in the elementary school; and for the prospective superintendents, a fund of knowledge about the objectives, methods, and functionings of the present-day elementary school. To meet the needs of such diverse groups in a single book is an almost impossible task. It is, however, the authors' purpose, not to give exhaustive treatment to the topics presented, but to produce a guide which may be supplemented as needed.

The authors state their aims in the Preface:

This book attempts to do six things: (1) acquaint readers with present-day trends in buildings, equipment, and supplies; (2) furnish an insight into some of the characteristics of elementary-school children and of the personnel who staff the schools; (3) provide basic understandings of community and cultural backgrounds of elementary education; (4) give information on the development of teaching in the elementary school as an occupation; (5) list the qualifications

for success in teaching; and (6) acquaint students with the opportunities in teaching [p. vii].

The book throughout describes for readers many conditions and practices which are recommended by modern theory but which exist practically in few schools. It contrasts these ideal conditions and practices with those the prospective teacher is likely to find in the schools in which he will be employed. The student is thus given an understanding of the elementary school, both as the teaching profession would like to have it and as it actually is. Furthermore, whenever such procedure is appropriate, chapters close with brief statements of implications for prospective teachers. These statements tell pointedly how teachers may employ the facts of the chapter for ease in adapting to the conditions as they find them and in using poor or adverse conditions as advantageously as possible.

Part I of the book presents what the authors call "Basic Factors in Teaching." The five chapter headings are "Present-Day Buildings, Equipment, and Materials," "The Pupils—Some Characteristics of Our Children," "A Classroom—Range and Variation among Children," "Colleagues—Staff and Organization," and "Organization and Working Conditions." By following the unusual approach of describing the physical plant first, the authors are enabled, later in the book, to say that a practice which they recommend can be carried on in the type of situation described in Part I. For example, the "contained classroom" (called "self-contained classroom" by some authors) can be maintained successfully with the type of physical equipment described in chapter i.

Chapters ii and iii describe some significant facts of child psychology: chapter ii presents the principles of child development, and chapter iii illustrates these principles with the entire elementary-school careers of twenty-five children. This is a section of the textbook which some users will want to supplement. They will want to emphasize the principles of human growth and development as a foundation of American education and will want to seek a more extensive treatment than these two chapters give.

Part II describes the interrelationships of education and the social order in chapters on "The Child," "The School," "The Teacher," and "The Curriculum." In each of these four areas the authors emphasize that teachers must understand and employ pertinent social facts if they are to succeed in achieving the purposes of education in our society. They take the position that the school should not attempt to lead social change; that—

the school is a cultural manifestation and that progress in education can come only through progress in over-all social dynamics. . . . It has a special contribution to make to the culture, but it is secondary or supplementary rather than primary or paramount. Such contribution as it makes is to the culture itself in the way of better understanding and enrichment [p. 163].

No explanation is made of what they mean by "enrichment," but it probably is not what other writers mean by "improvement." Nevertheless, the social foundations of American education are introduced in these chapters, and the way is opened for significant class discussion and for collateral reading on a controversial problem.

The authors choose, in the chapter on curriculum, to discuss the disharmonies between the culture and the curriculum, the social forces influencing the curriculum, and the problems faced by curriculum makers, rather than to discuss what the curriculum is or should be. Although the discussion as presented has value for experienced teachers, it

may be premature for many of the students in the groups to which this book is addressed. It seems to the reviewer, without discounting the significance of this discussion, that a critical evaluation of what is going on in the schools would be of more value to students and teachers taking their first professional look at elementary education.

The three chapters in Part III, which is concerned with "The Profession of Teaching," are entitled "Standards and Professional Status," "Teacher Preparation and Certification," and "Teaching—A Profession on the Defensive." These discussions are designed to aid students to evaluate teaching as a profession among other professions. On the basis of these evaluations, they may judge whether they care to follow teaching as a life-work. The last of the three chapters contains material seldom found in a book of this type, yet material of extreme importance; for it is the teachers who must lead the lay public to a recognition of the paramount importance of education to our society.

Part IV, in two chapters on "Opportunities in Elementary School Teaching" and "Securing a Certificate," provides helpful information in these two areas. The authors recognize that facts in both areas change rapidly and that information becomes obsolete almost before the book can be published. Indicated trends, however, will persist for some time, and students can secure helpful information from a discriminating study of these two chapters.

Any teacher of a class made up of students from the three groups for which this book was intended will find a great bulk of significant material for his class. A teacher who is looking for a textbook for beginning students of elementary education will do well to give this book careful consideration before making a final selection.

CLOY S. HOBSON

University of Kansas

R. FREEMAN BUTTS and LAWRENCE A. CREMIN, *A History of Education in American Culture*. New York 17: Henry Holt & Co., 1953. Pp. xii+628. \$5.75.

Students of education who are familiar with standard histories of American education and the literature on the role of education in American society will find this book by Butts and Cremin an interesting and informative example of what can be done by combining the factual-chronological approach, the cultural approach, and the problems approach in the presentation of a history of a social institution. Such students, however, will find in this work little that is new in the way of basic historical information.

The book is divided into four parts. Part I deals with the Colonial period; Part II, with the period from the Revolutionary War to the Civil War; Part III, with the period from the Civil War to World War I; and Part IV, with the period from World War I to the middle of the present century. The authors state their design, in the Preface, as follows:

Within each part education is treated as a phase of the distinctive cultural developments of the particular chronological period under consideration. An effort is made not only to describe the major cultural developments and trends that affected education but also to identify the persistent problems that appeared in each period [p. viii].

Each of the four parts is, in turn, divided into four chapters. The first chapter is concerned with various social institutions, social forces, and social trends that shaped education. The second chapter discusses the intellectual, philosophical, and psychological outlooks that influenced education in the period under consideration. The third chapter deals with the educational points of view that characterized the period, including those on which there was disagreement as well as those on which there was consensus. The fourth chapter describes the type of education that resulted from the interplay of social institutions and forces, intellectual orienta-

tions, and educational points of view. Students taking courses in educational history will probably appreciate the authors' faithful adherence to this stated pattern of presentation.

The most satisfactory sections are the second and third chapters of the parts devoted to the four chronological or cultural periods. These chapters deal, respectively, with the intellectual orientations that influenced education and with the prevalent educational points of view. In the treatment of intellectual orientations, for example, the authors deal briefly but adequately with such topics as the changes that took place in the spiritual conception of man between the Revolutionary War and the middle of the twentieth century. Usually, educational historians, after dealing extensively with the religious thought-life of the Colonial period, fail to follow through with an adequate treatment of this aspect of American thought-life in later periods of history.

As another example of adequate treatment, the authors bring educational history up to date when they give recognition to the contributions of George H. Mead, whose concepts of the "I," "me," and the "generalized other" are essential to an understanding of current studies on socialization. The strength of these chapters on intellectual orientations and the educational points of view becomes especially apparent when the reader notes the success of the authors in their attempt, in the final chapter of each part, to relate these two factors to the actual practices in education that prevailed during a given period.

By way of contrast, the first chapter in each part, dealing with the "social institutions, the social forces, and the social trends that shaped education" (p. ix), is decidedly below the quality of the authors' development of the intellectual orientations and the educational points of view. The shortcomings of the introductory chapters are particularly apparent in the authors' treatment of the later chronological periods, that from the

Civil War to World War I and that from World War I to the middle of the twentieth century. The reader is left to wonder what impact some of the social forces and trends described by the authors actually have had upon educational practice and development. Furthermore, such widely recognized contemporary social phenomena as changes and trends in occupational pattern and in population, which have had serious impact on education since World War I, are treated most perfunctorily or are wholly ignored.

Also, in connection with the authors' treatment of social institutions and social trends and forces, there are to be noted some puzzling references to the existence of social classes in America. The authors are obviously convinced that social classes have existed and continue to exist in America, but they fail to enlighten the reader as to what they mean by "social classes." The one exception to this shortcoming is the treatment of social classes during the Colonial period. The authors discuss briefly the various definitions used by other writers, namely, Lewis Corey and W. Lloyd Warner. Corey and Warner, however, differ in their conceptualization of social classes, and Butts and Crenin make no choice between the two conceptions.

Footnotes and references to source materials are few. Those graduate students who have a critical interest in histories of education will probably consider this feature of the book a decided shortcoming.

The book is designed for students in courses in the history of education and in similar subjects who are beginning their professional preparation and for advanced students who need opportunity for integration and synthesis of their specialized courses. The authors express the hope that it will also serve the interests of the profession at large and the general public. Interesting issues for study and discussion are suggested at the end of each chapter, and, in addition, each chapter has a bibliography. The book is well written, and it will probably be a welcome

addition to textual material for undergraduate courses in education.

JAMES I. DOI

State Board of Educational Finance
Santa Fe, New Mexico

★

ELOISE RUE and EFFIE LA PLANTE, *Subject Headings for Children's Materials*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1952. Pp. x+150. \$4.00.

Subject Headings for Children's Materials is a useful tool for the shelf of bibliographical aids for every librarian and teacher who is concerned with bringing together, organizing, and cataloguing materials for children who are in elementary and junior high schools. In order to make materials accessible and useful to children and to facilitate the use of indexes, card catalogues, and pamphlet files, it is necessary to use simple subject headings to describe the materials.

Eloise Rue, chairman of the Department of Library Science at Chicago Teachers College, and Effie La Plante, supervisor of cataloguing for the Division of Libraries of the Chicago Board of Education, recognized the need for a list of subject headings to replace or supplement the earlier *Subject Headings for Children's Books*,¹ now out of print. New trends in educational practice, changes in curriculum organization, technological improvements, and broader understanding of child development are factors which have brought new terms into the vocabulary of children and have inspired new approaches to materials. In the Preface to this book the authors describe their procedure thus:

In compiling this list in accordance with these principles our personal experiences in school and public libraries were an important factor, but personal opinions have been substantiated by

¹ Elva S. Smith, *Subject Headings for Children's Books in Public Libraries and in Libraries in Elementary and Junior High Schools*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1933.

considerable study and research including a Master's thesis by Eloise Rue, "Preferences of Elementary [-School] Children for Subject Heading Form"; scrutiny of outstanding courses of study for grades one through nine issued since 1944 and an examination of standard tools in use; the results of a questionnaire to school library supervisors, children's departments in public libraries, curriculum specialists, children's cataloguers, and library school faculties. These formed the basis for original decisions. When the preliminary draft had been completed, consultants throughout the United States and Canada were called upon to examine and comment on it. The present list incorporates many of their suggestions and comments [p. v].

Features of this list which will prove particularly useful are these: simplified terminology as compared with standard subject-heading lists, such as Sears's *List of Subject Headings*; use of words likely to be familiar to children, for example, "Cartoons" instead of "Caricatures and Cartoons," "Pioneer Life" instead of "Frontier and Pioneer Life"; use of terms which are comparatively new in children's vocabularies, for example, "Space Ships" as a reference to "Interplanetary Flight," and "Tall Tales"; and use of names for specific periods in history, rather than the chronological division under the name of the country, for example, "Colonial Period in America" rather than "U.S. history—Colonial Period." Anyone who has observed children using the card catalogue independently recognizes this to be their natural approach to such material.

A new departure in this list is the recognition of the need to provide in children's catalogues some attempt at content analysis of materials in terms of the developmental needs of children. Many headings are included here which were chosen, largely, from the list of developmental values in books prepared and used by the Center for Children's Books at the University of Chicago. Typical headings are "Family Relations," "Respect for Authority," and "Fear—Overcoming."

Certain controversial practices are fol-

lowed, including the use of capital letters to begin all words in the headings, and the use of the dash, rather than the comma, to indicate an inverted heading. It does seem that the first practice is more consistent with children's learnings at the elementary-school level and that the use of capital letters will not be a problem in library catalogues where headings in heavy capital letters are used. In any case, this practice could be adapted to the preferred procedure of a particular library.

The omission of personal references, especially those for artists, royalty, and saints, will be noted with regret by users of the Smith list. But the gain in brevity of the list is welcome, and the general form of entry is suggested in the Preface. The list was not designed to serve as a name-authority source. The addition of entries for several references from folk-tale sources, for example, Paul Bunyan and John Henry, is a good feature.

Materials in the audio-visual field still do not receive adequate, up-to-date treatment. For example, there is no cross reference from "Films" to the heading "Motion Pictures" which is used, and there is no reference from "Recordings" to "Phonograph Records." There is no distinction between the motion picture for theater use and that for educational use, nor is there recognition of tape or wire recordings.

The use of simpler headings based on the child's approach to subject fields of interest, whether inspired by individual exploration or curriculum needs, is to be advocated. Many adaptations to suit the existing practices of materials collections will be necessary, but the resulting extension of independent use of card catalogues by children will be worth while. High-school librarians who recognize a need, also, for simplified headings will find this list a useful tool. Wide margins are provided in the printed list for

writing in changes and additions. Many librarians believe that children need practice in learning to use the terminology which they will find in adults' library catalogues, but this is placing the emphasis on learning the particular words employed, rather than on

the experience of using easily and successfully a guide to materials.

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THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL

Volume LIV

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DECEMBER 1953

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Number 4

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

*

STATE AID FOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS

THE FUNDAMENTAL AIM of state grants of money to aid in the support of public schools in the local communities is the equalization of educational opportunity. There are, however, several correlates which, either in their individual effects on the adequacy of the financial relief proffered by a state government or in combinations of two or more of the related factors, may operate to hinder or offset the expected benefits of the state-aid program. A common example of such nullification of the values of the remedial program of state assistance to needy school districts is the practice of using the state subsidy to support an existing instructional program that is unacceptable instead of using it for the purpose of improving the educational advantages available to the community's children.

An illuminating analysis of the re-

sults of continued resistance to the stimulus of state aid toward the improvement of educational programs in local schools is presented in the September 11 issue of *Council Comments*, a publication of the Citizens Research Council of Detroit. The thesis of the commentary is that "the state of Michigan is paying \$180,000,000 a year to encourage the continued existence of inferior school districts." With the view of determining the extent to which the specified objectives of the Michigan state-aid program are being realized, the Citizens Research Council examined the statutory provisions of the state's program and the practices of school districts with respect to the use of the money received through state-aid grants.

The money distributed to local school districts each year under the provisions of the Michigan state-aid laws is derived from three separate

hungry. There is no reason why well-to-do communities should not raise the bulk of their own school costs.

Forty-two states have school equalization programs of some sort. They usually pay the difference between a minimum amount per child or per classroom unit and the sum raised by a standard millage upon the assessed valuation in a district. Because of widely differing assessment practices, that method does not provide true equalization. It enables some communities to obtain higher state payments by keeping their assessments low. It rewards, in effect, competitive under-assessment.

A few states in recent years have adjusted local assessment totals in each jurisdiction by a factor which is supposed to be the average ratio of assessed to true value. However, most of the ratios now actually in use are far from realistic. True equalization would result if the ratio of assessed to market value were obtained from an adequate sample of recent sales transactions.

(2) *States should aid needy districts with school building construction through state loans or the renting of state-owned school buildings.*

Raising funds for school construction often presents a problem of greater magnitude than finding sufficient funds for current expenditures. Existing obligations, debt limitations, and the condition of the bond market sometimes make it impossible for districts to finance urgently needed plant expansions. Yet only about one-fourth of the states aid their districts with grants or loans of substantial size for school-building construction. Experience has shown that outright grants do not promote the most prudent use of available funds. The California pattern of repayable loans or the Pennsylvania plan of a school building authority which rents the buildings to the districts both seem worth copying. Georgia, Maine, and Indiana have adopted the Pennsylvania plan.

(3) *Consolidation of small uneconomical districts will provide better education at lower cost and enable the reorganized units to become more self-supporting.* "Two-thirds of all

school districts have fewer than 50 pupils and account for only 3 per cent of total district enrolment." Ninety-three per cent of all school districts have fewer than 750 pupils each.²

Reorganization thus has progressed far too slowly. High state grants on a classroom-unit basis help to perpetuate dwarf units. Local pride is desirable—but not at the expense of other taxpayers nor at the expense of giving children a poorer education.

(4) *States can do more good by "helping local governments to help themselves" than by further expansion of financial aid. Technical assistance in the property tax administration can go a long way in helping to restore financial independence to counties, cities, and schools.*

A statement by a recent Kentucky Commission probably applies to most states, "The administration of the property tax is the weakest link in the Kentucky tax system."³

The appraisal of property is a professional task. It was not intended to be a policy-making job. Since local pressures often render it impossible for locally elected assessors to appraise property objectively and uniformly, the states should make technical assistance available for a reappraisal. The setting of tax levies, however, should be the responsibility of local governing bodies subject to approval of their residents.

To ease the mode of payment, property taxes should be payable like mortgages, light or telephone bills—in monthly instalments. Cities increasingly are relying on non-property taxes which are beyond the reach of school districts. Some cities may be able to forgo part of their millage in favor of the schools. Even if that were not done, the property tax, if fairly administered, could yield to schools far more than the \$2.5 billion a year they now derive from it.

² U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Governments in the United States in 1952*.

³ *Final Report of Findings and Recommendations of the Committee on Functions and Resources of the State Government of Kentucky, 1951.*

(5) *The real solution to the problems of our schools lies in greater citizen participation.*

There is ample proof that the American people will support an adequate school program if the need is shown to them.

At a time when the international situation forces us to devote 20 cents out of every dollar we earn to national security, all domestic programs must be viewed with a critical eye. A review of the school program cannot and should not be done on a national basis. It can be done on a state-wide basis as Utah and Kentucky have shown recently. In the end, however, "the American people, community by community will have to decide for themselves whether or not their schools meet their needs. In each community they will have to establish their educational standards—physical, intellectual and moral—and then measure their schools by those standards."⁴

The best answer to the basic issue of central responsibility versus home rule and local self-reliance can be found in Henry Simons' political credo:

"Doing specific good things by centralization will always be alluring. It may always seem easier to impose 'progress' on localities than to wait for them to effect it for themselves—provided one is not solicitous about the basis or sources of progress. A community imposing good local government from above may seem to get ahead rapidly for a time. Likewise, a community may temporarily raise its economic scale of life by living up its capital. And the analogy seems closely in point. Progress to which local freedom, responsibility, and experimentation have pointed the way may be accelerated for a time and effected more uniformly by the short cut of central action, but such short-cutting tends to impair or to use up the roots of progress in order to obtain a briefly luxuriant bloom."⁵

⁴ Roy E. Larsen, "A Citizen Looks at His Schools," *The Annals of the American Society of Political and Social Science*, CCLXV (1949), 160.

⁵ Henry C. Simons, *Economic Policy for a Free Society*, p. 13. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948.

SOME YEARBOOKS OF 1953

THE APRIL ISSUE of the *Elementary School Journal* described several yearbooks published during the school year of 1952-53. These five volumes were the now familiar titles, *American School Curriculum*, yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators; *Forces Affecting American Education*, by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development; *Bases for Effective Learning*, the Department of Elementary School Principals; and the two volumes comprising the Fifty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, namely, Part I, *Adapting the Secondary-School Program to the Needs of Youth*, and Part II, *The Community School*.

Five additional yearbooks have been received at the editorial offices of the *Journal* during the year of 1953. *Pupil Transportation* was published in late April; *The American Elementary School* was received in June; and *Science for Today's Children* is dated September, 1953. *The Fourth Mental Measurements Yearbook* was published in the summer. *The Learning of Mathematics: Its Theory and Practice* is published regularly in the winter or spring. Brief descriptions of these books are presented in the following pages.

The bus as part of the curriculum Pupil transportation is recognized as one of the important features of modern education. It is also a significant factor in the financial and administrative structures of the

rural school district which provides an acceptable instructional program for as many as four hundred pupils normally distributed through the elementary- and high-school grades. It has been estimated that at least nine states transport one-third or more of all pupils enrolled in their public elementary and high schools. An additional nineteen states transport one-fourth or more of such enrolments. It is not surprising to find that the science of school administration has developed a substantial body of literature on such aspects of the transportation service as selection of personnel and equipment, operation and maintenance of facilities and schedules, and proper safeguards for the health and safety of the children. But the later publications are giving a new emphasis to the functions of the transportation division of the reorganized rural school.

Pupil Transportation, the 1953 Yearbook of the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, does not ignore the demands of transportation service on management and financial resources; three or four chapters of the yearbook are devoted, at least in part, to these aspects of the service. It does, however, stress the concept of pupil transportation as a learning experience requiring much the same sort of co-operative planning, skilled counseling, and evaluation as the other socializing activities that are identified with the instructional program. The authors of this yearbook believe that the bus is more than a medium of transit. It has

become a part of living for the pupils, who form their own special-interest group out of the experiences of the daily bus ride. "The traveling classroom," say the authors of the yearbook, "contributes definitely to the development of a firmer and deeper appreciation for our country and for our American society—its government, industries, institutions, and people." In this vein the yearbook discusses pupil transportation as a factor in improving educational opportunity, improving the instructional program, and broadening the school program.

This volume is available at \$2.50 a copy in cloth, \$2.00 in paper covers. Orders should be sent to the Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

*Emerging
concepts of
elementary
education*

The Thirteenth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society, *The American Elementary School*, edited by Harold G. Shane, professor of education at Northwestern University, is primarily an authoritative interpretation of certain significant concepts of the modern elementary school. The particular theories and issues which the yearbook committee selected for discussion are readily identified with newly arising responsibilities of the common schools as a consequence of recent developments in the natural and social sciences, which have been accompanied by demands for reconstruction of the content and methodology of elemen-

tary education. It is also expected that this volume will help elementary-school teachers make better use of their knowledge and professional experience in guiding children's learning toward the most appropriate educational goals.

As an orientation instrumentality in the pre-service training of the teacher and as a dependable basis of perspective for the teacher or supervisor concerned with the unending task of adapting the learning experiences of young children and youth to their present needs, the yearbook covers such a variety of curriculum and personnel problems as to constitute a general overview of the field of elementary education. Four of the sixteen chapter titles are indicative of the range and significance of the topical organization of the book. These are "Dynamics of Learning in Childhood Education" (chap. iii), "Changing Interpretations of the Elementary Curriculum" (chap. vi), "Improved Teaching Materials Contribute to Better Learning," (chap. x), and "Better Humans, Better Citizens" (chap. xv). Each of the sixteen chapters was written by a recognized authority in the field covered.

This volume may be purchased from the publishers, Harper and Brothers, New York 16, New York. The price is \$5 a copy.

*Science in
the elemen-
tary school*

We are constantly being reminded that developments in science are forging ahead of the advancement of new knowledge in most

other fields of human interest and endeavor. The study of science in colleges and secondary schools has been notably sensitive to the implications that recent invention and discovery have for the content of formal education as well as for the social and economic advantage of masses of people. Perhaps because the custodial pattern of home life and early childhood education makes it unnecessary for elementary-school pupils to comprehend the phenomena of air conditioning and air transport, science-teaching in the elementary-school grades seems to have just about doubled the commonly confessed lag between education and social progress in this country.

Contributors to the 1953 Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals are obviously representative of those members of the teaching profession who visualize an early awakening of teachers and parents to the practical need and intellectual challenge of science education for pupils of all elementary-school grades. The recently published volume, *Science for Today's Children*, was studiously designed by the yearbook committee to provide essential information and professional guidance for the reconstruction and extension of the science curriculum of the elementary school. More than seventy authorities on elementary-school science contributed to the task of supplying interested teachers with help in understanding what science instruction should do for elementary-school children, what aspects of science should

be taught and how they should be taught, and how science experiences can be used to contribute to child development.

The magazine published by the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association is known as the *National Elementary Principal*. The September number of this periodical is regularly utilized for publication of the articles comprising a yearbook of substantial value to members of the national professional association of principals of elementary schools. Practically, these yearbooks are valuable additions to the libraries of institutions that are concerned with elementary education, as well as those of individuals interested in the subject matter of the particular fields of study. The present volume, *Science for Today's Children*, is the Thirty-second Yearbook Number of the *National Elementary Principal*. It is available at \$3 a copy on order to the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Yearbook on mental measuring The latest issue of the well-known reference series on mental tests is an invaluable aid to users of tests in the fields of education, industry, psychology, and psychiatry. It comprises 1,189 two-column pages and carries 4,417 references on the construction, validity, use, and limitations of specified tests. It lists 429 books on measurements and closely related fields. All the items noted in

the *Fourth Mental Measurements Yearbook* fall within the three-year period, 1948-51. Accordingly, this volume is to be recognized as an extension of the earlier issues of the series rather than merely a revision of the *Third Yearbook*, which was published in 1949.

The editor, Oscar K. Buros of Rutgers University, expects to continue the series, providing a review of like materials appearing in successive three-year periods. The volume may be procured through the Gryphon Press, 220 Montgomery Street, Highland Park, New Jersey, at \$18 a copy.

Mathematics practice and theory The title of the Twenty-first Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics is *The Learning of Mathematics: Its Theory and Practice*. The book is concerned with the nature of learning in the field of mathematics and with means of facilitating the processes by which an understanding of mathematical concepts can be acquired. Consideration is given also to the practical problem of learning how to use mathematical knowledge that has been gained. The language of the text is distinctly nontechnical—a characteristic which is advantageous to the classroom teacher. Illustrative materials are fairly balanced between problems and concepts associated with the common experiences of children of elementary-school age and of students in high-school classes.

The eleven chapters of this volume provide helpful explanations and suggestions regarding such familiar learn-

ing activities as drill, problem-solving, the formation of concepts, and sensory learning in the field of mathematics. In like manner, illuminating discussions and concrete examples help the teacher understand the meaning and significance of motivation, individual differences, and transfer of training. In each chapter there is evidence of the author's desire to help the classroom teacher direct the growth of the learner toward the goals of an adequate fund of mathematical knowledge and the ability to use such knowledge to good effect in school work and in out-of-school activities.

This yearbook may be purchased from the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. The price is \$4 a copy.

ANNOUNCEMENTS OF INTEREST TO EDUCATORS

ANNOUNCEMENTS and news items pour into the editorial office in a stream. Some of those that are concerned with items of special interest to our readers are passed on to you in the following paragraphs.

A study of teaching in the public schools Yale University is beginning an on-the-spot study of teaching as it is practiced in the public schools of the town of Fairfield, Connecticut. The study will be conducted by the Yale Department of Education in conjunction with the Board of Education in Fairfield. The long-range research program will be financed by the Ford Foundation's

Fund for the Advancement of Education, which has already approved a \$50,000 grant to cover the first year's work.

The project is designed to answer such questions as these: Are prospective teachers receiving adequate professional training today? Should they be required to take more courses in pedagogy and psychology, or should they concentrate more on academic subjects?

The Citizens' Council of Fairfield, a town with a population of 30,000, suggested the program to cover their thirteen public schools with an enrollment of about six thousand pupils. The program was then outlined and promoted by Clyde Hill, chairman of Yale's Department of Education; Samuel Brownell, president of the New Haven State Teachers College and newly appointed United States Commissioner of Education; Carlyle G. Hoyt, superintendent of schools in Fairfield; and Joseph Baer, director of research for the Connecticut State Department of Education. The Fairfield Citizens' Council and the Fairfield Education Association, together with the State Department of Education, will participate in the study as consultants to the Yale Department of Education.

The main purpose of the project will be to study the job of elementary-school teachers in relation to their professional training. It will also analyze the various duties of teachers in an attempt to decide which are professional and which are technical. This analysis will be used to determine

what duties now performed by teachers might be modified, reassigned, or discontinued without affecting the essential qualities of their job. The Yale project will also attempt to determine how the number of children assigned to a classroom influences not only the teacher but also the pupil.

At the conclusion of the first stage of the study, an experimental procedure will be put into operation in the Fairfield schools. This procedure will be based on the findings of the research project and will test their validity. Professor Hill said that the study may demonstrate, for example, that the current teacher shortage can be alleviated by the use of teacher aides to do nontechnical work, as nursing aides are used in many hospitals. The findings may also lead to recommended changes in teacher-certification requirements. Another possible effect, according to Professor Hill, would be the forming of new concepts of school buildings that will meet more adequately the needs of elementary education.

The Yale-Fairfield study, which may extend over a ten-year period, will be co-ordinated with a similar project in Bay City, Michigan, also financed by the Fund for the Advancement of Education. Several assistants and students in the Yale Department of Education will be given temporary post-doctoral research assignments in connection with the project. The study will be administered by a full-time director to be named in the near future.

The study will be guided by an executive committee composed of representatives of several groups interested in it. As chairman of the Yale Department of Education, Professor Hill will head the executive committee in charge of the research staff. The executive committee, in turn, will report at regular intervals to a larger advisory committee, which will include representatives of Yale University, the State Department of Education, the Fairfield Board of Education, the administrative staff of Fairfield's school system, the Fairfield Education Association, the Connecticut Education Association, the Citizens' Council, and the Fairfield P.T.A. Council.

New journal in arithmetic Teachers of arithmetic will be interested in a new periodical, the *Arithmetic Teacher*, which will begin publication in February, 1954. The new journal, which will be published by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, has been planned to fill a long-felt need for more assistance to teachers of arithmetic. It will be devoted to the improvement of the teaching of mathematics in kindergarten and in all the grades of the elementary school. It will be a companion journal to the well-known *Mathematics Teacher*.

The editor of the new journal is Ben A. Sueltz, of the State University of New York, Cortland, New York, who is nationally known for his contributions to the teaching of arithmetic. The journal will contain articles

by leaders in mathematics education and outstanding teachers of arithmetic. Special features will include information on investigation and research, teaching and curriculum problems, testing and evaluation, teaching aids and devices, and book reviews.

The *Arithmetic Teacher* will be published four times a year, in October, December, February, and April. The subscription price will be \$1.50 a year to individuals and \$2.50 a year to schools, libraries, and other institutions. There will be an additional charge of \$0.10 for mailing to Canada and \$0.25 for mailing to foreign countries. Subscriptions should be sent to the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Help for citizens' committees The current teacher shortage which is plaguing the public schools can be solved by intelligent citizen action, according to a booklet titled *How Can We Get Enough Good Teachers?* released in November in a limited edition by the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools.

The fourth in a series of "working guides" published by the Commission, the booklet is designed for use by local and state citizens' committees whose communities are touched by the teacher shortage. Background information about teachers is supplied on a national scale, and practical suggestions and check lists are presented

to facilitate study by state and local citizens' committees.

According to Roy E. Larsen, chairman of the National Citizens Commission, and president of Time, Inc., the Commission "considers this booklet one of the most important of our working-guide series because of the seriousness of the problem." Under-scoring the need for action, he said, are statistics released this year by the United States Office of Education which indicate that there is a shortage of 72,000 elementary-school teachers.

In line with the Commission's program, the guide on teachers is not offered as a definitive answer to the teacher problem but is intended as a tool to help local communities work out their own solutions. The booklet considers four main aspects of the shortage in sections headed "The Problem: A Serious Shortage," "Balancing Supply and Demand," "Making Teaching More Attractive," and "How Can We Prepare Enough Good Teachers?" Study tips are provided for each problem area. Single copies will be mailed free of charge to interested citizens for a limited time. Requests should be addressed to the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 2 West Forty-fifth Street, New York 36, New York.

Other booklets already published in the Commission's working-guide series include *How Can Citizens Help Their Schools?* *How Can We Organize for Better Schools?* and *How Have Our Schools Developed?* In preparation are guides on school boards, school fi-

nance, buildings, instructional materials, goals of our schools, meetings, and working with the press.

New publisher for a well-known magazine Commencing with the October, 1953, issue, the long-established *Journal of Education* is being published by the School of Education of Boston University. With W. Linwood Chase as managing editor, the journal will be directed by an editorial board composed of the following members: Donald D. Durrell, Ralph J. Garry, John G. Read, Henry W. Syer, John A. Wallace, and James A. Wylie.

The magazine will appeal to administrators, supervisors, and classroom teachers throughout the whole school system, but it will be especially attractive to classroom teachers from kindergarten through Grade IX. One of the featured sections of the *Journal of Education* is a column devoted to the listing and review of professional books dealing with curriculums, sources of material, teaching methods, supervision and administration, and other related areas.

Subscriptions and requests for further information should be addressed to *Journal of Education*, 332 Bay State Road, Boston 15, Massachusetts.

Courses in public relations An unfriendly public can often be turned into a friendly one if use is made of the public relations techniques now available to per-

sons training to become classroom teachers and administrators. Today's education students can learn public relations in 52 colleges and universities, it has been announced by Stewart Harral, director of public relations studies at the University of Oklahoma. Seventy-six per cent of the members of the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education responding to a questionnaire study reported that course offerings, which now total 91, have increased almost 29 per cent over the 71 courses given in 1952.

Twenty-two colleges and universities offer a course each semester, Harral found in the annual survey which he conducts for the National School Public Relations Association. Summer-school students can take a course in 38 institutions. Twelve universities offer courses two semesters each year, while seven offer courses either by extension or through workshop sessions.

Why this great upsurge in offerings? "American schools have extended their mission and services until they touch more lives than ever before," Harral explains. "Schools face a crisis. Administrators and teachers realize that upon the attitudes of the public depends the future of education. An informed public can aid immeasurably in gaining public acceptance and support—support by which the schools live."

NELSON B. HENRY

WHO'S WHO FOR DECEMBER

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by NELSON B. HENRY, professor of education at the University of Chicago and secretary of the National Society for the Study of Education. RALPH W. TYLER, until recently dean of the Division of the Social Sciences at the University of Chicago and now director of the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences established by the Ford Foundation, considers the concepts that should guide the administrator in his role as democratic leader of the school system. FRED E. BRYAN, superintendent of the Uniontown, Pennsylvania, city schools, describes a study of the size of children's vocabularies, in which he tested children in varying socioeconomic groups and geographic areas, at different seasons of the year, and used areas of experience common to all children. HELEN M. ROBINSON, associate professor of education and director of the Reading Clinic at the University of Chicago, evaluates four tests often used for measuring vision. NED D. MARKSHEFFEL, teacher of remedial English at Santa Cruz High School, Santa Cruz, California, lists some of

the causes of poor spelling and points out ways in which children can be helped to become proficient spellers. ROBERT F. TOPP, dean of the Graduate School of the National College of Education in Evanston, Illinois, reminds parents and teachers that, while it is a good thing to encourage children to do their best, no child should be pushed beyond his limitations. HAROLD A. ANDERSON, assistant professor of education and executive secretary of the Committee on Preparation of Teachers at the University of Chicago, presents a list of selected references on teacher education.

Reviewers of books BRUNO BETTELHEIM, principal of the Sonia Shankman Orthogenic School and professor of education and of psychology at the University of Chicago. CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN, professor emeritus of education at Pennsylvania State College. ADELINE KULLIG, speech correctionist at Rich Township High School, Park Forest, Illinois, and at Bremen Community High School, Midlothian, Illinois. ILLA PODENDORF, teacher of science at the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago.

LEADERSHIP ROLE OF THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR IN CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION

RALPH W. TYLER

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THE school administrator is often said to be more effective in such aspects of his work as planning buildings, securing financial support, and conducting public relations programs than he is in giving leadership to curriculum and instruction. Whether or not this is true, some administrators certainly are confused about the role of administration in relation to instruction.

There are administrators who give no attention to the educational program. They are busy with their boards of education, with their building problems, or with some other aspect of their work, and they show no concern for instructional leadership. What is done about instruction in these schools is done by teachers without direct administrative leadership.

There are also administrators who put the leadership entirely in the hands of the supervisors or directors of instruction in the various subjects or special fields. Such situations are less common now than they were ten or fifteen years ago, but they are still to be found.

Administrators of a third type are

the laissez faire administrators, who fear that to exercise leadership in instruction is to be undemocratic. Teachers are given opportunities to do the things they want to do, but the administration supplies no direction which seeks to unify, or give central co-ordination to, the activities that go on in instruction and the curriculum.

A fourth type of administrator is the one who puts all his eggs in one basket. He has one device for the improvement of the curriculum and of instruction. He may have a curriculum planning committee, or a curriculum council, or a preschool workshop, or extension courses, or some clause in the salary schedule which requires teachers to get so many hours of additional credit every few years. He thinks his role as instructional leader has been properly played when he has established some simple device of this sort.

These are only four examples. They do not exhaust the types of situations which exist, but they are sufficient to illustrate the prevailing lack of clarity about the significant features of the total complex involved in giving

needed leadership to the instructional program of a public school.

CONCEPTS NEEDED BY THE ADMINISTRATOR

It is always easier to identify difficulties and confusion than it is to point the way out. The main thesis of this article is that the leader of instruction, whatever may be his title—superintendent, assistant superintendent, principal, supervisor—needs to have two clear sets of concepts to guide his activities if he is to give effective leadership in the improvement of instruction. One set of concepts provides him with an understanding of the process of curriculum development and instruction. It helps him to visualize the process—its parts and their relationships. The second set of concepts provides him with a view of what educational leadership involves. The administrator needs to see clearly the organization of the school staff and of the community and to understand the way in which they can be effectively brought together in developing the curriculum and improving instruction. He needs to have a picture of himself in relation to this process of development, seeing himself in a defensible and effective role as leader.

GENERAL CONCEPTS ABOUT THE CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL PROCESS

The administrator must understand the curriculum and instructional process because this is the basic process of the school, the reason for the existence

of everything else with which he deals. He cannot make decisions wisely, select personnel or do any of the other administrative tasks intelligently, without a clear understanding of what the schools are doing, why and how they are doing those particular things.

A helpful concept of the curriculum and instructional process will include not only an idea of the major elements involved but also a knowledge of the specific aspects that give concrete meaning to the curriculum and instruction. In major terms, he views the process as one of deciding on educational objectives, of selecting learning experiences to attain the desired objectives, of organizing these learning experiences so as to maximize their cumulative effect, and of evaluating the progress that pupils are making in order to check the effectiveness of the instructional program and the respects in which it needs improvement.

SPECIFIC CONCEPTS ABOUT THE CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL PROCESS

How significant objectives are derived.—But the administrator also needs specific concepts about the curriculum and instructional process. He needs to understand, for example, what significant educational objectives for our times are and how they may be derived. He realizes that a good educational program is guided by objectives that have been carefully selected after study of contemporary life, of the pupils concerned, of the recommendations of competent schol-

ars in the various subjects. He realizes that the relative importance of possible objectives must be considered in terms of the educational philosophy of the school and the extent to which our knowledge of the psychology of learning enables us to attain the objectives. He knows, too, that these aims are not completely fixed, that they require continuous or periodic restudy.

Accepted functions of fields of study.

—He needs to understand the accepted functions of the various fields of study—reading, mathematics, social studies, the arts, and the rest—and why these functions are recommended by leaders in the several fields. All too often administrators think of reading merely as a function of recognizing words, or mathematics merely as skill in computation, or social studies merely as becoming familiar with our past, or the arts merely as learning to draw and paint. A knowledge of the various accepted functions of each field gives the administrator a basis for understanding its aims.

Characteristics of good learning experiences.—The administrator also needs an understanding of the characteristics of good learning experiences, since they are the means by which educational goals are attained. The most obvious characteristic of a good learning experience is that it gives the students a chance to practice the behavior implied by the objectives. For example, if one seeks to teach young people to read critically, then the learning experiences must give them a chance to do some critical reading.

If an aim is to teach children to think for themselves, then learning experiences must be provided in which problems are raised and pupils are stimulated to try to solve the problems. If an objective is to develop appreciation for music, there must be learning experiences which give pupils a chance to listen to music and to try to understand it and to find satisfactions in it.

The administrator should also recognize that a good learning experience is one in which the learning situation is meaningful and interesting to the pupil so that he becomes involved in the experience rather than reacting superficially to it. When the pupil practices behavior to which he is giving little or no attention, that is, when he is not deeply involved in the reaction, the behavior is not likely to be learned.

The administrator also needs to know something of the varied kinds of learning experiences that may be employed and the bases upon which experiences are selected for a particular use. Some learning experiences, often called "firsthand" experiences, give children a chance to get new sensations and perceptions, while others provide opportunity for the pupils to reflect on, to organize, to relate, and to evaluate ideas previously obtained. Each type has its place—but for different purposes and at different times. In similar fashion, the administrator needs to see the possible uses of field trips, the laboratory, the television, the radio, the movies, discussion, lec-

turing, reading, writing, dramatization, and so on.

Furthermore, the administrator should be familiar with the possible ways of organizing learning experiences. He should understand that the educational results sought by schools involve significant changes and developments in the behavior patterns of pupils. These changes require many learning experiences distributed over the child's entire school life. For maximum effect to be achieved, both sequence and integration are necessary in the organization of the learning experiences.

Sequence not only requires continuity of emphasis upon major objectives over the years but also requires that each successive treatment go more broadly and deeply into the topic than the previous ones. The effect of a given number of hours focused in this way on some important learning is far greater than the same amount of time devoted to experiences that are not organized in sequence.

The administrator needs not only to recognize the importance of sequence but to know possible methods of organization to achieve sequence. In primary-grade reading, the method of organization is widely known. The learning experiences begin with familiar oral vocabulary, a limited number of words, and simple sentence structure. Gradually the number of the words used and the range of vocabulary are extended, and the sentence structure becomes more complex. In the same way, instruction in the so-

cial studies in the elementary school commonly begins with the family and classroom as social units and gradually extends the experiences into the neighborhood, the community, the state, and the nation. These are only two illustrations of a score or more possible methods of organizing learning experiences so as to achieve sequence.

Also desirable in the organization of the curriculum is integration—the relating of what the pupil does in one field to what he is doing in another and the relating of what he does in classes to what he does outside of classes. Learning is reinforced as the pupil sees and uses the connections among the learning experiences in the several segments of his life. As with sequence, there are several possible ways of organizing learning experiences to attain integration. For example, the skills developed in reading may be used in other fields; some of the problems raised in shop or studio may be attacked in mathematics; concepts developed in science may be compared and contrasted with related concepts in the social studies.

Evaluating the program.—The administrator also needs concepts about evaluation. He should understand the need for continuous checking of the effectiveness of the educational program. He should realize that to appraise the effectiveness of the program is to find out the extent to which the objectives are being attained—what progress pupils are making in developing understanding, skills, social attitudes, habits, wholesome interest,

aesthetic appreciations. In addition to this general notion of evaluation, he needs some ideas about the means that can be employed and about the role of teachers, pupils, parents, and others in the evaluative process.

Value of these concepts to the leader.

—The foregoing illustrations show what is meant by concepts which give the administrator an understanding of the process of curriculum development and instruction. To give the kind of leadership required, the administrator needs understanding at this level of concreteness. This does not mean that he knows everything about instruction or even that he knows more about the curriculum and instructional process than anyone else on the staff. It only means that, if he is to give intelligent leadership, he must be able to see how the instructional activities of the school are related to the over-all process. With this kind of understanding, he can identify major tasks needing attention, he can see the relevance or irrelevance of criticisms and constructive proposals. Without such concepts, he may be tempted to encourage activity in the field of curriculum and instruction as an end in itself, since he has no sound basis for judging whether the new instructional procedures are any better than the old. To know what he is doing requires a clear conception of the curriculum and instructional process.

CONCEPTS OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The second set of concepts needed by the leader of instructional improve-

ment includes those which give him a view of what educational leadership involves. No doubt this understanding has always been desirable, but it is particularly important now because of the confusion about the meaning of democracy and its relation to leadership.

Necessity for leadership.—*Democracy* is a popular term today just as *communism* is unpopular. Everyone wants to be democratic. But the common notions of what it means to be democratic are varied and often are not in harmony with a sound conception of responsible leadership. Among these misconceptions is the idea that, in a school staff working on instructional improvement, no one should have specialized responsibilities but that everybody is to do the same thing. Another notion is that the democratic leader should have no clear-cut ideas of his own regarding the educational program of the school but that all the ideas must come from persons who are not administrators. Still another misconception is that no step is taken in a democratically operated school until all the staff is prepared to approve it. The apparent cause of these distorted notions is the confusing of the basic spirit of democracy with a particular form of operation. The fundamental element of democracy in administration is the respect for human personality, that is, respect for the dignity and worth of the individual. Guided by this attitude, the democratic administrator seeks continuously to provide and maintain a situation in which the contributions of each

individual are maximized and respected.

This basic concept of democratic leadership is quite a different thing from the notion that all school staff members have the same responsibilities. The board of education, which has legal control of the schools, assigns the responsibility of operating the schools to the educational leader—the administrator. The lodging of responsibility in a leader is necessary and desirable. The community has the right to know where to place its suggestions and complaints and whom to hold responsible if the educational task is poorly done. We expect similar identification of responsibility for the work of the police department and the fire department. The administrators of these departments are expected to give leadership and to maintain and to improve the quality of service. Exactly so is the educational leader responsible to the community for the maintenance and continued improvement of education.

Functions of leadership.—The administrator needs to recognize that one of the functions of educational leadership is to make co-operative activity possible. If I were a science teacher, I might try to persuade the mathematics teacher next door to work with me on the problem of relating mathematics more closely to science, but he might argue, with justice, that I ought to work with him on one of his problems, rather than the other way around. If there is to be unified, coherent staff activity in the school, someone must undertake the task of

focusing efforts and securing co-operation. This is one of the responsibilities of leadership.

The leader also has the job of securing the resources needed for the tasks undertaken. We do not expect each teacher, unaided, to find all the resources he needs. The books, the laboratories, the teaching aids, the consultative services needed by the individual teacher are secured through the efforts of the administrator—and necessarily so.

The educational leader also bears the responsibility of seeing that school-wide educational planning is carried on. The educational effectiveness of a school is dependent, to a considerable degree, upon the planning of the work of the various grades and fields so that sequence and integration are provided. The teacher cannot bring about this kind of coherence by himself. The responsibility for getting over-all planning continuously carried on is the administrator's.

Two other tasks of leadership should also be mentioned. One is to see that the curriculum and instructional program is appraised from time to time so that the staff and community will know how well the schools are doing and what further steps are needed for improvement. The other is the all-important one of stimulation and encouragement of personnel so as to initiate and maintain staff interest and activity in positive steps for instructional improvement.

These responsibilities of leadership are obvious ones, but the present confusion over the meaning of democracy

has obscured the fact that the administrator has specialized responsibility to see that functions of this sort are carried on effectively. This does not imply that the leader is the only person in the school who takes initiative. The conception of the administrator as the only person with ideas or the only person free to promote his notions is an old misconception of leadership, in which the administrator was thought to be interested only in the things he started and impatient or antagonistic toward the ideas of others. The concept suggested here is that a good staff organization provides both formal and informal channels by which suggestions from any teacher will quickly be communicated to any or all parts of the staff to which they are relevant. Typically, these channels are provided, not only through the close contact of principals and teachers, but also through a formally constituted faculty council which is officially designated as a channel for criticisms and suggestions and a means of getting action on ideas presented.

The informal channels are also important. If you and I have a good idea for our teaching, we can get together on an *ad hoc* basis and try it out, but if the idea involves others whom we do not know or who are not actively interested, more formal channels are required. The good leader encourages persons who express suggestions to put them into effect. If the proposals seem to be helpful on a wider basis of application, the good leader gets them into more formal channels for wider dissemination. Encouragement of

teacher initiative is quite consistent with the concept of the democratic leader who has the responsibility of seeing that instruction is maintained and improved.

The concept of leadership outlined here also emphasizes the value of capitalizing on the special interests, experiences, and competencies of the various members of the staff. Many of the jobs involved in improving instruction, including the leadership tasks themselves, may be performed by various members of the staff in terms of their special competencies. For example, suppose the faculty of an elementary school needs to get a picture of what recent developments in art education might mean to the curriculum. Should the administrator get together the information and make the presentation to the staff? Not necessarily. If he knows the staff members well, he may be able to identify one or two persons interested in the problem who would welcome the chance to study it further and would benefit from the experience. Both in terms of individual and group assignments, the good leader seeks to capitalize on the special abilities and experiences of staff members and to effect a wide distribution of responsibility, even while he recognizes that this does not relieve him of the responsibility of seeing that the total task is well done.

Skills in leadership.—Educational leadership also involves skills in working effectively with groups. The concepts and findings of those working in the field of group dynamics have thrown important light on methods of

leadership. However, there is more to group dynamics than some oversimplifications would suggest. Thelen points out that a group works on two kinds of problems almost simultaneously, the "achievement problem" and the "group-process problem." To solve the achievement problem is the purpose for which the group was formed, while the solution of the "group-process problem" is necessary for effective integration of the group.¹

Some school administrators who have become interested in group dynamics give their exclusive attention to the "process problem" so that to make the group a coherent unified whole becomes an end in itself. Forgetting the purposes for which the group was organized, such administrators devote the major time and effort to ascertaining how members of the group feel and whether emotional tension is properly channeled. This oversimplification of group dynamics defeats the purpose for which it is used. The function of group dynamics in educational programs is to facilitate the attack upon the "achievement problem," that is, to accomplish educational purposes through group action that could not have been accomplished as well individually. Through group activity, not only do we seek the preparation of a product like a report or some instructional material, but, more often and more importantly,

we seek to educate members of the group through their participation. What they learn, as well as any product prepared, becomes the "achievement task" for the group. This must not be overlooked in using principles of group dynamics and in employing other useful skills of group leadership.

EVALUATING EFFECTIVENESS OF LEADERSHIP

The administrator's concept of leadership should include the process of evaluation. He needs to appraise the effectiveness of the instructional leadership in the school. This requires some methods for appraisal. The effectiveness of leadership is not validly judged in terms of the degree of satisfaction the leader has, for his feeling of satisfaction is largely subjective and depends on his own needs and standards. However, the twofold function of leadership, namely, to develop an increasingly better education for children and to contribute to the further growth and development of the staff, provides a set of criteria for the periodic appraisal of the effectiveness of leadership. The administrator needs to look for evidences of desirable changes in the educational program and for evidences of development on the part of staff members.

Periodically, he can note and record the objectives of the school program. Are they increasingly based on studies of the children and of society? Has account been taken of the recommendations of leaders in the various fields? Have they been carefully selected in the light of the school's philosophy? Are they attainable?

¹ Herbert A. Thelen and Ralph W. Tyler, "Implications for Improving Instruction in the High School," *Learning and Instruction*, chap. xii. Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1950.

Similarly, the learning experiences in the various classes can be examined to note the extent of improvement in such respects as their appropriateness for the objectives, their meaningfulness to the pupils, and their motivation. Reviewing the educational program from class to class and grade to grade, the administrator can find out whether an increasing degree of sequence and integration has been attained in the organization of the learning experiences. Examining the program of evaluation, he can note improvements in such matters as the tendency to appraise the progress of pupils in terms of all the objectives and the extent to which the results of the appraisal are being used to improve the curriculum and instruction.

These are criteria appropriate to the first function of leadership—understanding the process of curriculum development and of instruction. To appraise the effectiveness of leadership in terms of the second function—its contribution to the growth and the development of the staff—requires similar periodic checks on the development of individual staff members so far as their curriculum and instructional work is concerned. For this purpose, various kinds of information must be obtained from a variety of sources, including observation and reports from the staff members themselves.

COMMON PURPOSE OF ADMINISTRATOR AND TEACHERS

The foregoing concept of leadership may be contrasted with the common misconception that there is necessary

conflict between the administration and the teachers. Sometimes it is said that there is an inevitable conflict between the power given administrators by the board of education and the power teachers must attain through solidarity of organization. It is sometimes stated that staff meetings, when led by an administrator, are generally undemocratic because he has a hidden agenda which represents his scheme for manipulating the teachers to serve his purposes.

There is no essential conflict between a good, effective administrator and good, effective teachers; for the administrator is not seeking to impose his will on teachers nor are teachers seeking to exercise power over the administrator. Both are disciplined in terms of the larger purpose they are seeking to serve—the common effort to provide a better education for children. As Dewey points out in *Experience and Education*,² self-discipline is a major aim of democratic life, but self-discipline is often confused with control of one's life by whims. The really self-disciplined person is he who has learned that his most important aims require great control and guidance on his part. He cannot accomplish his most cherished purposes immediately; he needs knowledge and training which take time and effort to acquire. So it is in the school staff relationship.

If the teachers and the administrator are dedicated to the improvement of education for children, both

² John Dewey, *Experience and Education*, p. 75. The Kappa Delta Pi Lecture Series. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938.

are guided, not by the force of group solidarity or the power of position, but by the knowledge of what is required of them to improve education. In case conflicts arise over the appropriate steps to be taken, the issue is not well settled by the criterion of which position has most power but rather on the basis of which idea proves most effective in improving education. In other words, the final test of the rightness of a proposed course of action is its results rather than its sponsorship. Actually, it is often found that both conflicting ideas need modification. Some of the things I thought were excellent turn out to be unsatisfactory in improving education. Some of the others that I considered inadequate turn out to be better than I thought. The same with some of your ideas. Our common exploration in improving education leads us both to modify some of our notions and brings us out of conflict.

This conception of teachers and administrators engaged in a common study of ways of improving education gives a view of the leadership role similar to that of a good teacher in an adult-education program who helps mature, self-directed adults to learn. To illustrate this role, suppose that I were the principal of a school with a staff of twenty-seven teachers. There are some things that I need to learn to be a better principal. No doubt there are also things that each teacher needs to acquire to be a more effective teacher. As we work along together, we get to know and respect each other, we help each other in identifying the

things each of us now does best and the things we need to learn. In effect, we would be working out an individual set of learning objectives for each member of the group, including myself. Some of these objectives—things we need to learn—will be the same for most of us. Others will be unique for each individual. For example, we may all need to know more about the kinds of resource units that can be used in elementary social studies, while only a few of us need to learn how to work more easily and informally with children, since most of us have already developed these skills. Each of us can help others attain their educational objectives. We are all engaged in a process of mutual education, and I, as principal, have the added responsibility of getting the program under way, helping the group to see what the program can be and how we can carry it on, enlisting the special interests and competencies of members of the group, and encouraging their development.

The improvement of curriculum and instruction is the most important task of the school administrator. He has a major role to play in obtaining improvement, but its elaboration has been confused by misconceptions about leadership. The integration of comprehensive concepts about the curriculum and instructional process and sound concepts of the dynamics of leadership can free the administrator from much of this current confusion and give him clear direction.

HOW LARGE ARE CHILDREN'S VOCABULARIES?

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THE QUESTION of the size of children's vocabularies seemed fairly well settled until Robert H. Seashore, professor of psychology at Northwestern University, came up with his bombshell. He asserts that the common estimates of teachers, research specialists, and textbook writers "are frequently less than 10 per cent of the true size as estimated from written definitions of representative sample lists taken from unabridged dictionaries" (8: 181).

The studies of Jones (5), Thorndike (10), Horn (3), Buckingham and Dolch (1), and Rinsland (6) tend to stress the limitations of the average vocabularies of children. In contrast to these references to limited vocabularies, Seashore contends that the average first-grader knows 24,000 different words, that the average sixth-grader knows 49,500 different words, that the average high-school student knows 80,000 different words, and that the average university student knows 157,000 different words (8). In counting "different" words, Seashore includes both "basic" and "derived" words. He arrived at these estimates by taking a systematic sampling of

words from an unabridged dictionary. A test devised on the basis of this sampling was administered to children in Grades I-XII by Mary Katherine Smith. On the basis of the results, she asserts that the absolute size of vocabularies throughout the grades greatly exceeds past estimates (9).

Textbook-writers base their material on the accepted word lists compiled by investigators in the field. If it is true that these estimates are too small, then our children have been starved by the narrowness of their reading material. If, on the other hand, these accepted lists are too large, children are being urged beyond their ability. Further, if it is found that the vocabularies of children are much larger than we have been led to believe, it behooves educators to do everything possible to enrich, rather than limit, the word power of children.

PLAN OF PROCEDURE OF PRESENT STUDY

A further check was conducted to test the hypothesis that children's vocabularies have been underestimated because they have been developed from (1) single time situations, (2)

limited geographical areas, and (3) single response situations. To do this it was necessary to devise a plan for periodically checking vocabularies of children under different geographical conditions, at different seasons of the year, and with common areas of experience used as response stimuli. It was assumed that the influence of these three conditions might reveal knowledge of words which would remain dormant unless some such circumstance had stimulated recall.

A test booklet containing three separate tests was constructed. The first test is a free-association test similar to the ones used by Buckingham and Dolch (1: 5, 6, 12) and Figurel (2: 14).

The second test is a stimulus-response test. It is used to stimulate the thinking of the children taking the test by recalling common areas of experience for them. Ten areas were used: "Home," "School," "Farm," "Store," "Ways People Travel," "Sunday and Church," "Work and Play," "Stories You Have Heard or Read," "Radio and Movies," and "City." Many other areas could have been used, but it was felt that these ten were sufficient to check the hypothesis that children can reveal knowledge of more words if they are helped to recall them.

The third test is an exact copy of the multiple-choice English Recognition Vocabulary Test by Seashore and Eckerson (7). Permission to use this test was granted by Seashore. In order to assure the administration of these

tests under the same circumstances and at the same time, all three tests were printed in a twelve-page booklet. Before any distribution was made, 7,500 booklets containing 22,500 tests were ordered.

It was decided that elementary-school children in Grades II-VI in various socioeconomic areas could be tested with the greatest facility. The tests were administered in many different, widely separated communities throughout the United States, in areas of different socioeconomic status. Schools in the oil fields of Texas, a plantation school in Alabama, a private school in Hollywood, California, and rural and urban schools in Pennsylvania are examples of the varying types of communities where the schools in which the children were tested are located.

The tests were sent to these communities three different times during the year: (1) autumn—September 15 to October 15; (2) winter—January 15 to February 15; (3) spring—May 1 to May 31.

The first distribution was made in the autumn of the year. Approximately twenty-five hundred test booklets were distributed personally or by express to those who had previously agreed to help with the administration. Detailed instructions were sent with each set of tests.

METHOD OF TABULATING WORDS

After the test booklets for the autumn were returned, tabulation was begun immediately. Tabulation fol-

lowed the rules laid down by Thorndike in the introduction to *A Teacher's Word Book* (10). No attempt was made to tabulate the total frequencies of all the words in the test booklet, since to do so would have been an impossible task for one person.

All the words written in the free-association test in the autumn by children of Grade II were tabulated first. In starting with Grade II, the writer followed the same order of grades as did Buckingham and Dolch (1). They felt that "it was necessary to progress from the lowest grade upward, since the words which do not belong in Grade II naturally would be left for Grade III; those not suitable for Grade III would be left for Grade IV; and so on" (1: 6).

In order so determine which words belonged to each grade, a subjective method similar to Figurel's was employed (2: 14). All the words with a frequency of two or more in the free-association test in the autumn for Grade II were tabulated. A word having a frequency of one was carried over, and when it appeared a second time, credit was given to the test and grade in which it appeared. Thus, a word may have appeared the first time in the autumn free-association test for Grade II and not have appeared again until the stimulus-response test in the spring for Grade III. Grade III would then be given the credit for the word. All the tests were tabulated in this way: autumn, winter, and then spring for Grade II;

autumn, winter, and then spring for Grade III, and so on, until all the free-association and stimulus-response tests through the spring for Grade VI were completed.

In order to get an adequate sampling of the Seashore tests, all the tests were stacked heterogeneously by grades, and every fifth test was selected and checked with a score card provided by Seashore. The total number of words actually known on the test after correction was made for guessing, multiplied by 505 (the sample of the dictionary on which the test is constructed is 1/505 of all such words in the dictionary), gave the total number of words purported to be known by the individual.

NUMBER OF WORDS KNOWN BY CHILDREN

Almost 100 per cent of the teachers and administrators of the participating schools responded. In all, 6,780 free-association tests were administered to 2,260 different children. A total of 1,110,435 words were written by these children. A total of 6,870 stimulus-response tests were taken by 2,290 different children. These children wrote a total of 1,332,240 words. When we combine the words written in both the free-association and the stimulus-response tests, we get a grand total of 2,442,675. This figure can be compared with Buckingham and Dolch's total of 2,714,857 (1: 5, 6, 12).

Combining the number of words

written by children of Grades II-VI in both the free-association and the stimulus-response tests in an accumulating manner, it was found that they had written a total of 9,469 different words, as shown in Table 1. There were 463 words which could not be

tions, and when the stimulus-response test was given to stimulate recall, the children of Grades II through VI wrote 9,469 different words. This is an increase of 41 per cent.

There were 567 different words in the free-association study by Buck-

TABLE 1
TOTAL NUMBER OF DIFFERENT WORDS BY GRADES WRITTEN IN
FREE-ASSOCIATION AND STIMULUS-RESPONSE TESTS

GRADE	FALL TESTS		WINTER TESTS		SPRING TESTS		ALL TESTS
	Free-Association	Stimulus-Response	Free-Association	Stimulus-Response	Free-Association	Stimulus-Response	
II.	676	353	203	158	174	92	1,656
III.	376	255	159	175	160	154	1,279
IV.	354	302	203	410	271	387	1,927
V.	372	332	284	422	384	382	2,176
VI.	660	522	338	248	364	299	2,431
All grades	2,438	1,764	1,187	1,413	1,353	1,314	9,469

used in Grade VI because they did not have a frequency of two or more.

On the basis of an adequate sampling of the Seashore tests it was found that the median size of the vocabulary of second-grade children was 4,080 words (Table 2). By the time the children reached Grade VI the median vocabulary had risen to 25,573 words.

As shown in Table 3, the children of Grades II-VI wrote 6,733 different words in the free-association study made by Buckingham and Dolch (1: 5, 6, 12). When the children in the present study were given the free-association test at different seasons of the year in different geographical loca-

ingham and Dolch which did not appear in the present study. If these 567 words were added to the total list of different words found in this stimulus-response study, the grand total would

TABLE 2
COMPARISON OF MEDIAN VOCABULARIES FOUND IN SEASHORE-ECKERSON STUDY AND IN THIS STUDY

Grade	Seashore Median	Median in This Study
II.	21,900	4,080
III.	25,600	11,615
IV.	28,400	13,130
V.	25,600	21,543
VI.	34,000	25,573

be 10,036 words for children of Grades II–VI, inclusive. This is almost 50 per cent more words than found by Buckingham and Dolch.

TABLE 3
COMPARATIVE SIZE OF
VOCABULARIES

Grade	Buckingham and Dolch Free-Association Study	Present Stimulus-Response Study
Preschool..	1,759	1,794*
II.....	984	556
III.....	863	875
IV.....	767	1,778
V.....	1,100	2,136
VI.....	1,260	2,330
All grades	6,733	9,469

* Written by children in Grades II–VI but appearing on the preschool list of the International Kindergarten Union list (4).

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

1. "The Vocabularies of School Pupils" by E. L. Thorndike (11), often referred to as our chief help in estimating the size of children's vocabularies, was made in 1924. The Buckingham-Dolch study which resulted in their *Combined Word List* (1) was made in 1936. The accuracy of these studies cannot be questioned, but the vocabularies of children in the days before radio and television cannot be compared with their vocabularies of today. If textbook-writers depend on studies made twenty-five years ago, or even fifteen years ago, they are not challenging the children to use the words met in their daily

living. To our new word lists we must add *colorcast*, *microwave*, *cloud-seeding*, *radioactive*, and hundreds of other words which modern living accepts as commonplace.

2. It is evident from the findings of the present study that children will reveal a knowledge of more words if external stimuli to recall are either provided or taken advantage of.

Children will reveal a greater number of words if their attention is called to common areas of experience, such as home, school, church, farm, city, and circus. The present study stimulated the recall of a greater number of words than revealed by the free-association study alone. It is reasonable to believe that children would reveal even larger vocabularies if they were stimulated by a greater number of common areas of experience.

Children will also reveal a greater number of words if they are given an opportunity to write their lists during different seasons of the year—autumn, winter, spring, summer.

The total vocabulary of all children will be found larger than it is thought to be at present if the children to be tested are selected from various locations in the United States and from communities of varying socioeconomic conditions.

3. The free-association method alone does not give children the opportunity to reveal their true vocabularies. Buckingham and Dolch found only 6,733 different words for children of Grades II–VI in their free-association

tion study. The writer combined the free-association study with a stimulus-response study and found 10,036 different words known by children in these same grades. This is almost a 50 per cent increase over the words found by the free-association method.

4. Seashore asserts that the common estimates of teachers, research specialists, and textbook-writers are frequently less than 10 per cent of the true size as estimated from written definitions of a representative sample list taken from unabridged dictionaries. Seashore made this assertion after his English Recognition Test was administered by Smith to a limited number of children in a single locality during one season of the year. In the present study, Seashore's test was administered to a large number of children in various parts of the United States at three different seasons of the year. The writer did not find that the children know as many words as Seashore estimates; but, based on the sampling of the dictionary, it can be theoretically assumed that children know more words than have been revealed by the free-association studies, the counting of words found in children's written work and other forms of expression, or any combination of these methods used in the past.

5. The present study shows that children of Grades II-VI know at least 10,000 words. The number of words that children know would undoubtedly be shown to be larger if the following methods of testing were

used: (a) testing the children of a greater number of socioeconomic areas of the United States; (b) testing the children more often during the year, so that various holidays, seasons, and recreational activities would recall added words; (c) recalling for the children a greater number of their common areas of experience.

6. It is the responsibility of all educators to enrich, rather than limit, the word power of children. We should encourage children to use all the words at their command and to reach for other words which could be, and should be, part of their vocabularies.

When writers of textbooks and other books for children base their materials exclusively on the existing word lists compiled by former investigators in the field, they are starving the average or the better-than-average children by the narrowness of their reading material.

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VISUAL SCREENING TESTS FOR SCHOOLS

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CHILDREN'S VISION has been considered by schools for more than two decades. Each year, an increasing number of schools administer one of the visual screening tests. The Snellen test was the first one available and is still used widely, despite the fact that as early as 1939 Spache¹ questioned the accuracy of the results of this test. His study led him to conclude that the Snellen test should no longer be used alone as a test of the vision of school children. He pointed to the errors which could be avoided if more recent tests were employed. During the past ten years, other investigators have supported Spache's conclusions.

THE PURPOSE OF VISUAL SCREENING TESTS

All teachers and administrators are concerned with maintaining optimum learning conditions, and good vision has assumed major importance in this category. Even though published research has not yet identified a specific relation between vision and learning, authorities generally agree that adequate vision is conducive to learning. Some visual specialists state that all children who do not learn by the usual

instructional methods should have a professional visual examination.² In practice, this suggestion is not feasible, and it is therefore necessary to provide some means for identifying just those pupils who are most likely to need visual care. This is the function of visual screening tests.

The visual screening tests are not designed to help the teacher or school nurse diagnose the visual problem in any way. That is why they are scored *pass* or *fail* and why the suggestion is made that a child be referred to a vision specialist when the findings warrant.

EVALUATING VISUAL SCREENING TESTS

Many schools request appraisals of the commercial visual screening tests. Imus³ reported such an evaluation made with adults. Until recently, no data have been available for school children.

² Marguerite Eberl, "Visual Training and Reading," *Clinical Studies in Reading. II—With Emphasis on Vision Problems*, p. 147. Edited by Helen M. Robinson. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 77. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1953.

³ Henry A. Imus, "Visual Testing Techniques," *Transactions American Academy of Ophthalmology and Otolaryngology* (March-April, 1948), 370-84.

¹ George Spache, "Testing Vision," *Education*, LIX (June, 1939), 623-26.

In the fall of 1952, Crane and others⁴ reported a study of approximately six hundred children in Grades I and VI. In addition to the Snellen test, four commercial batteries were used, and the results were compared with the ophthalmological findings. They discovered that the batteries which correctly identified the highest per cent of pupils with visual problems also had the highest per cent of incorrect referrals. They concluded that their results did not point to one test or group of tests as superior to the others. The authors also reported on the time required to administer the tests.

Only two aspects of the test batteries were appraised by the study: validity and economy of time. To appraise the screening tests adequately, additional considerations are needed. First, it is important to determine whether provision is made for testing all the important visual characteristics and whether unimportant characteristics are included. Second, the accuracy with which the subtest of each visual screening battery measures what it is designed to measure should be determined. Third, the standards for passing and failing individual test items as well as the entire battery should be considered. This problem is closely related to the validity of the batteries as reported in the

study by Crane. In addition, appraisal of the standards of the subtests are needed. Fourth, the reliability of the test batteries should be established, because only reliable tests can be used with confidence as an index of individual performance.

Some data have been collected which throw light on these four problems, as well as on those considered by the Crane study. These data were collected as a part of an investigation of the relation between visual efficiency and progress in learning to read.⁵ This research is currently in progress, so that conclusions must be deferred until it is completed.

ANALYSIS OF SUBTESTS

Four visual screening batteries and, in addition, a number of experimental tests were included in the research. The four commercial batteries were the Keystone Visual Survey Test,⁶ often referred to as the Betts Telebinocular; the Massachusetts Vision Test⁷; the Eames Eye Test;⁸ and the Ortho-Rater Tests of Visual Efficiency.⁹

Each of these four batteries includes a measure of visual acuity at twenty feet, although the targets dif-

⁵ Helen M. Robinson and Charles B. Huelsman, Jr., "Visual Efficiency and Progress in Learning To Read," *Clinical Studies in Reading*, II, *op. cit.*, pp. 31-63.

⁶ Keystone View Co., Meadville, Pennsylvania, (1947).

⁷ Welch-Allyn Co., Auburn, New York.

⁸ World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

⁹ Bausch & Lomb Optical Co., Rochester, New York.

⁴ Marian M. Crane, M.D., Richard G. Scobee, M.D., Franklin M. Foote, M.D., and Earl L. Green, "Study of Procedures Used for Screening Elementary School Children for Visual Defects: Referrals by Screening Procedures vs. Ophthalmological Findings," *Sight-Saving Review*, XXII (Fall, 1952), 141-53.

fer markedly. The Massachusetts test employs an adaptation of the Snellen *E* test, while the Eames test uses both *E*'s and other letters. The testing is done with the opposing eye covered, while with the Keystone and Ortho-Rater neither eye is covered. The latter employ stereoscopic instruments, presenting some targets before each eye, with special additions for testing acuity. The Keystone test requires recognition of the position of a black dot in a square figure, while the Ortho-Rater employs a black-and-white checkerboard in a square figure.

Only the Keystone and the Ortho-Rater have measures of visual acuity at near,¹⁰ the distance at which children read or study. In the past the assumption has been made that near acuity of children can be accurately predicted from their far acuity. However, data secured from Grades IV and VII do not support this conclusion. The coefficients of correlation between far and near acuity, as measured on the Keystone and the Ortho-Rater tests, vary from .24 to .63.¹¹ It is clear that even the highest correlation is too low to predict accurately near-acuity scores from scores at far distance. If these findings are substantiated by the study of larger num-

bers of children at other grade levels, it is clear that the Massachusetts battery omits an important item, namely, near acuity.

Both the Massachusetts and the Eames batteries include tests with lenses to identify children who are far-sighted or near-sighted, while neither the Keystone nor the Ortho-Rater batteries do so. Children who are near-sighted obtain lower-than-average scores on the far-acuity tests, but no means for identifying pupils who are far-sighted is provided by the Ortho-Rater or the Keystone batteries. The relation between far-sightedness and reading difficulty has been emphasized in the literature, but the data now available in this study are inadequate to offer an evaluation.

All four batteries include tests for identifying children with one eye turned very slightly above the other at far distance, but only the Ortho-Rater includes such a test at near distance. Coefficients of correlation between performances at far and at near distances are of such magnitude that scores at near distance cannot be accurately predicted from scores at far distance in individual cases.

Measurement of lateral phoria, which is a tendency for the eyes to turn in or out, has been included in three batteries at both far and near distances. The Eames tests contain a measure for lateral phoria at far, but not at near, distance.

Tests of fusion, the ability to bring together the impressions of the two eyes into a single image, are separate items in the Keystone and the Eames

¹⁰ A near-acuity test was added to the Eames battery in 1950, after these data were collected.

¹¹ Complete statistical data resulting from this study are reported in Helen M. Robinson, *An Analysis of Four Visual Screening Tests at Grades Four and Seven*. American Journal of Optometry and Archives of American Academy of Optometry, Monograph No. 145. Minneapolis, Minnesota: American Academy of Optometry, 1953.

batteries. The Ortho-Rater acuity targets provide an opportunity for a child to report lack of fusion, but the Massachusetts tests does not consider this factor. Depth and color tests are a part of the Ortho-Rater and the Keystone batteries only.

The important question, which cannot be answered at present, is whether all the functions just discussed are related to children's achievement in school or whether the batteries including fewer items are sufficient.

ACCURACY OF MEASUREMENT

Earlier in this paper attention was called to the fact that visual screening tests are not designed to diagnose visual problems. However, to use them with confidence, the examiner should be assured that each subtest is the best measure of the function it purports to measure. One means for determining what a test measures is statistical analysis. Where there is a distribution of scores, intercorrelations among them may be calculated. From the intercorrelations, a factor analysis explains the correlations by means of fewer factors than the number of tests in the original measurement. In this way it is possible to estimate the degree of correspondence between each test and each factor.

This statistical method was applied to the test results for about fifty pupils in Grades IV and VII. Unfortunately, the Massachusetts and the Eames batteries did not permit this rigorous analysis because they are

merely marked *pass* or *fail*. Thus, the scores on the Ortho-Rater and the Keystone batteries were correlated with a number of other tests in the larger study, and factor analyses were calculated.

The visual-acuity tests were composed of four factors. Factor A appeared in all tests and seems to be essential to all seeing. The Ortho-Rater far-acuity tests had the highest loading on this factor, while the Keystone ranked somewhat lower at both grade levels. The two batteries ranked about equal on Factors B and C. Factor D appears to be created by the instrument itself. On it, the Keystone loadings were slightly higher than those for the Ortho-Rater.

The near-acuity tests contained less of Factor A and more of Factor B, with equal loadings for the two batteries. However, the loadings on Factor C were approximately equal but in opposing directions, showing a distinct difference in the targets of the two batteries. Likewise, the loadings on Factor D were in opposing directions but of insignificant magnitude.

The composition of the depth tests on the Keystone and the Ortho-Rater batteries differ markedly. Further analysis is needed to check hypotheses concerning the nature of these factors before an appraisal is attempted. In this manner, the other subtests of these two batteries are to be subjected to rigorous analysis so that the accuracy of measurement may be determined.

STANDARDS FOR PASSING
AND FAILING

The manuals for the Massachusetts, the Eames, and the Keystone batteries present specific standards for passing and failing. Tentative standards have been established for the Ortho-Rater. If these four batteries are equal and if the norms are properly established, then the same children should pass and fail corresponding subtests on each battery.

Results obtained with pupils in Grades IV and VII reveal an inconsistency in standards for the four batteries. The per cents of children passing and failing on the Ortho-Rater and the Massachusetts batteries are in closer agreement, and fewer pupils fail these subtests than fail those of the Keystone and the Eames batteries. Therefore the adequacy of the standards must be questioned.

One method for appraising the standards and for checking the validity of the entire batteries is to check them against results obtained by professional visual examiners. As a part of the major study, seventy-nine pupils were selected at random, with approximately equal distribution in Grades I-VIII. The chi-square statistic was used to compare the findings of the test batteries with those of two professional examiners. The magnitude of the chi squares reveals that the agreement is highest with the Ortho-Rater and the Massachusetts batteries; considerably lower, although still statistically significant, with the Keystone; and insignificant with the

Eames. It is clear that the Eames battery and the visual examiners did not select the same pupils for visual care.

RELIABILITY OF THE VISUAL
SCREENING TESTS

The manual for the Eames test¹² reports that with one hundred school children the entire battery agreed with itself in 93 per cent of the cases. The manuals for the Keystone and the Massachusetts batteries provide no comparable data on reliability, nor does our current research. However, the Ortho-Rater battery was administered twice to sixty-nine children selected at random in Grades II-VIII.

The reliability coefficients for the acuity tests ranged from .68 to .82. The coefficients for the lateral phoria test at far were .80, and at near .62. A coefficient of .80 was obtained for the depth test. It is interesting to note that, in general, the means for the acuity and the depth tests were higher and the standard deviations lower on the second test. Such a change reveals that practice improves the scores and suggests a second testing for pupils who secure questionable ratings.

The results of the two administrations of the entire Ortho-Rater battery show 77 per cent agreement, despite the improvements of second scores. The chi square reveals that the agreement is well beyond the 1 per cent level of confidence.

¹² Thomas H. Eames, M.D., *Eames Eye Test*, p. 3. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1940.

OTHER CONSIDERATIONS

For school use it is essential that these batteries be simple enough to be administered by laymen. The four batteries considered here require no technical background to administer, and a teacher who recognizes the significance of following directions carefully can use them. No objective data are available concerning the ease with which their use can be learned. However, most graduate students in an advanced course in clinical reading express preference first for the Ortho-Rater, second for the Keystone, third for the Eames, and last for the Massachusetts.

The cost of visual screening tests is also important to schools. The Eames Eye Test is quite inexpensive; the Massachusetts costs con-

siderably more; and the Keystone and the Ortho-Rater are most expensive to purchase. The cost of maintenance is negligible. The fact remains that, in determining the preferable visual screening battery, expenditure should be secondary to such factors as validity, reliability, and usability.

SUMMARY

The foregoing discussion has served to identify some important aspects of an evaluation of visual screening tests for school children. The objective data presented are preliminary and based, in part, on research in progress. The analysis has pointed up specific problems which school personnel should consider carefully in selecting visual screening tests.

A SPELLING IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM

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SPELLING mistakes have been the subject of vast numbers of studies, in which data were gathered on the mistakes made by children and adults. The data appear to indicate that something is wrong with the ordinary method of teaching spelling. Errors in spelling are made not only by retarded pupils but also by those who are capable of a high level of achievement.

This article does not give attention to all the spelling mistakes that are made by children nor to the reasons for the mistakes. Rather, it is an attempt to present a workable program for children who need special help with spelling.

SOME CAUSES OF POOR SPELLING

Before any program for treatment of spelling difficulties can be undertaken, one should know some of the causes of poor spelling. Once the causes are known, then an attempt to point out the specific type of treatment that a child needs to become a proficient speller, at least more proficient than he now is, can be made.

Most investigators agree that one of the causes of poor spelling is lack of desire to learn to spell. Experience has taught the writer that one of the first

things which must be done is to develop the proper attitude within the learner himself. Most children who cannot spell have been so frustrated by their lack of learning to spell that they refuse to try to learn. All kinds of excuses are given, many of them justifiable. This writer believes that, once a desire to learn to spell has been developed, any normal child, with the aid of proper teaching, can learn to spell correctly.

The child can be helped to create this desire by writing material that is meaningful to him. If he writes letters which are merely exercises and are used to point out his errors, then we cannot hope to develop the correct attitude. Have the child write letters to "real" people, and have him mail the letters. When the child knows that someone besides his teacher will read his work, he is more likely to want to learn to spell correctly. The publication of a classroom newspaper or the writing of contributions to a school newspaper also creates the desire for correct spelling. Once the child knows that his work may get into the paper and be read by many people, he has real motivation to do his very best. This method has been used successfully by the writer for some years.

Children, as well as adults, must experience success in what they are doing or they will not continue to try. The child who is a poor speller sees little sense in exerting effort on a lesson in which he continually fails. The obvious thing to do is to give the child some success in spelling. Prove to him that he can learn to spell by using a small list of words that are within the child's speaking and reading vocabulary.

It is a wise procedure to determine the method being used by the child to learn to spell. Most poor spellers are unsuccessful because they use faulty methods of trying to learn a word. Have the child spell some words aloud.

Memorizing individual letters without any feeling for the wholeness of the word is one of the most common faults that the writer has encountered. Often the child names all the letters of a word but is unable to place them in the logical order. For instance, the word *recognize* may be spelled *recongize*, *regconize*, or *regonize*. The same thing happens when a child tries to learn words solely by "visualizing" them, looking off into space in hope of picking the word "out of the air." Some children try to spell everything phonetically. A good diagnostic technique for testing a child who makes this type of error is to give him some nonphonetic words to spell.

Most authorities on the teaching of spelling admit that certain natural handicaps make for poor spellers. Among these handicaps are faulty vision, low general intelligence, faulty

auditory perception, faulty word perception, lack of motor co-ordination, speech defects resulting from abnormalities in the speech mechanism, and generally poor physical condition. Since certain native handicaps influence a child's ability to spell, diagnosis should include consideration of the physical qualities of the child. Can he see and hear well? Does he have a speech defect? Does he exhibit symptoms of poor nutrition? Is he continually tired? Certainly, any diagnosis should not overlook these items.

Spelling should be taught according to each individual's needs. Thus, the child's capacity to learn should be checked. Although it appears that the relation between spelling ability and intelligence is not highly significant (a correlation of .30 has been reported by several investigators), the remedial teacher should have some knowledge of the child's capacity. Louttit reports the range of thirty-two correlations as being between .08 and .85. He states that a correlation of .50 "would seem to represent the relationship fairly" (19: 283).

The teaching system should be appraised in any diagnosis. Every child who is a poor speller is not a poor speller because of the teaching situation. However, many authorities claim that poor spellers are made by the teaching methods used. Fernald is the most outspoken. She says, "Spelling failures are due to bad habits that are forced upon the child by the school in the attempt to teach him to spell" (9: 183, 186-94).

A SUGGESTED IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM

It is the teacher's responsibility to develop a program that will care for the needs of children who are having difficulties with spelling. "Remedial" is the word that immediately pops up whenever such a program is suggested, but the writer prefers to use the words "improvement program." Any improvement program should include (1) a minimum list of basic words, (2) a good method for learning to spell words, (3) a program which fully integrates the classroom work and the life-situation, (4) a program that provides for frequent review, and (5) a program of self-guidance for continued growth in spelling.

There is slight difference between a good preventive program and an improvement program, the main difference being that in an improvement program a basic writing vocabulary must be built up. A basic writing vocabulary not only is necessary but is also the aim of any good program of spelling. The experience of the writer has been that the children who are having difficulties are those who have failed to acquire knowledge of a core of basic words.

A basic writing vocabulary must be so thoroughly learned that the child will have a stock of words the use of which has become habitual—words that can be written without his having to stop to check the spelling. Once the child has acquired such a background of basic sight words, the teacher can switch to a more corrective type of

program based upon the child's needs in writing.

How can a teacher teach so that the correct spelling of a minimum number of words will become habitual for the child? If these words are to be invariable in any writing situation, the list used must be small. It is impossible to attempt to teach all the words that a child or an adult will use, but a small basic core of words that are used over and over by children and adults should be learned.

BASIC WORD LISTS

Some teachers need no books or basic lists of words to teach spelling successfully, but these teachers are the exceptional ones. For those of us who have not reached this high degree of skill, some guide, such as a basic list of words, has merit.

The list not only should be small but must be wisely chosen. The teacher should realize that this list is only a beginning from which to build a writing vocabulary. Provision should be made to teach the additional words that a child finds he needs as he engages in writing activities. All the pupils should have their own list of words. As a child needs a word or misspells a word, he copies it into his notebook correctly and learns it. Each child thus has his own list of words on which he is checked and tested. However, just as a beginning reader needs a basic sight vocabulary, a *poor speller* likewise needs a basic list of words which is used as a base for further study. Since many teachers do not

know where to obtain such a list, several lists which may be used are mentioned here. These are not the only lists available, but they are excellent ones with which the writer is familiar. Dolch (6), Fitzgerald (10), Gates (14), and Rinsland (21) have all published such lists of words. These lists include "demons" and the most common 1,000 and 2,000 words used in writing. These lists should be used as guides for an improvement program. No one list could possibly anticipate all the words that a child might use. Authors of spelling textbooks are far from being in accord concerning the words that should be studied, as is evidenced by Betts's study of words in seventeen spellers (3). Only 6.25 per cent of all the words appeared in all the spellers, and only *one word* was placed in the same grade by the seventeen authors. Wise (24) made a study of twenty well-known textbooks which aimed to teach words that the child was most likely to need in his writing vocabulary. Each book was supposed to represent the four thousand most common words. Wise's study showed that the four thousand most common words totaled 13,641 different words.

Hildreth (17) made a comparison of 769 easy spelling words from the Dale list, the Dolch list of 220 common words in children's oral and reading vocabulary, and a selection from the Rinsland list of words most frequently used by children in their writing. Hildreth found that there was a great deal of overlap in the lists and also certain differences. It was found that 156 words were common to all three

lists. She attributed the differences to the "nature of the lists and the way in which the words were selected." Hildreth (17) combined the commonest words in these three lists into one list of 320 words.

Investigations by Fitzgerald (10) and Rinsland (21) indicate that there is a need for a basic core or list of words for children who are beginning to write. The Fitzgerald list contains 350 basic words. The Rinsland list is also for elementary-school children. Breed's *How To Teach Spelling* (5) and Horn's *A Basic Writing Vocabulary* (18) also contain basic lists.

The writer has not reviewed all the writing lists which have been prepared by investigators in this field, but those cited certainly should be given consideration when selecting a basic list of words.

A METHOD FOR LEARNING TO SPELL

Most of the authorities are fairly close in their agreement on the following steps for learning to spell a word:

1. Learning meaning and pronunciation of the word.
2. Seeing the word and saying it—seeing it not only as a whole, but syllable by syllable.
3. Looking at the word, occluding the word from view and spelling it. Checking to see if it is spelled correctly.
4. Writing the word. Checking the word to see if it is spelled correctly.
5. Covering the original word and writing it again, always checking with the original for correctness.

With improvement groups, the writer uses a method developed and used by the Reading Clinic of Temple University. This is an adaptation of

Fernald's technique for learning a word (9):

1. The word to be learned is written for the pupil by the teacher.
2. The child must first know the meaning and correct pronunciation of the word.
3. The child looks the word up in the dictionary and underlines the syllables.
4. The child studies the word until he thinks he knows it.
5. The child writes the word on the opposite side of the paper, first saying the word as a whole, then saying each syllable aloud as he begins writing that syllable. When the word is completed, he underlines each syllable, saying the syllables as he underlines them. He again says the word as a whole and then checks with the original on the opposite side of the paper.
6. The child repeats Step 5.

As children advance, they no longer need to underline the syllables, but they do continue to say the word before writing it. This may appear to be a slow method for learning, but it is a sure method, and the writer's pupils appear to enjoy learning words in this way. Few of the writer's pupils who use this method fail to increase their spelling ability markedly.

TESTING AND REVIEWS

Authorities differ in their views about the test-study, study-test method of presentation of words. As far as the writer's groups are concerned, it makes little difference which method is employed. However, a test-study plan appears to save time for some pupils since they study only the words they miss rather than spend time studying the entire list of words.

Frequent and varied review of the words used with improvement groups

is necessary. Ebbinghaus (8), in his work on *Memory*, has shown that forgetting follows a definite and rapid pace. Reviews, then, are necessary, and varied and interesting methods of presentation should be utilized. Troublesome words must be used until they become habitual with the child. The teacher must not resort to mere word drill to achieve this end, or the whole aim of the program will become meaningless.

With most of the children in an improvement group, retesting should be done within twenty-four hours and, if possible, again within a week. Any words missed should be relearned by the child until mastery of those words is achieved. Frequent retention checks in meaningful situations will serve to lessen the rate of forgetting.

The fact that the spelling program is planned as an improvement program is no reason for its being limited to a series of dry, meaningless drills. Rather, it must be rich and varied in the opportunities for writing, such as writing letters to be mailed and writing articles for a school newspaper. Only by using the spelling words in writing will the pupil be able to make them habitual. Indeed, spelling words are learned solely for the purpose of permitting the child to express himself freely in written language.

SELF-GUIDANCE

A most important phase in a corrective spelling program is that of teaching the child self-guidance and self-evaluation. Most children in need of special help in spelling have de-

veloped a poor attitude toward spelling. Careless, slipshod habits must be unlearned, and correct, workable methods substituted. Steps should be taken to instil this idea within the learner at the very beginning of the program. He should be made conscious of the need for correct spelling in all his writing activities.

Most poor spellers shrink from the sight of the dictionary and from the very sound of the word. The symptoms of nausea caused by the dictionary can usually be cured by teaching dictionary skills and bringing the pupil to realize that the dictionary is not such a disturbing element once the enigma of its contents is made understandable to him.

When the child has acquired a feeling of success that accompanies the mastery of a minimum list of words, he should be motivated to express himself with new and enriched words. When he realizes that the words he has learned are a foundation upon which he can build a greater, and more expressive, writing vocabulary, then he is well on his way to becoming independent in spelling.

SUMMARY

From the evidence of investigations and his own teaching experiences, the writer has reached the following conclusions:

1. Children can learn to spell.
2. Learner attitudes are an important factor in both good and poor spelling.
3. It is necessary to create a desire within the pupil to write well.

4. Diagnosis is necessary to find the causes of poor spelling.

5. The child's method of learning to spell a word should be discovered before attempting to teach him, for he may be using the wrong learning method.

6. Natural handicaps should be taken into consideration.

7. Many poor spellers are made by the teaching methods used.

8. The teacher's role is a most important one.

9. Every child needs a basic list of habitual words.

10. Minimum word lists are necessary with children who are experiencing special difficulty.

11. Children vary in their need of words for expression. No one list could attempt to cover all the child's needs.

12. Frequent tests and reviews are necessary.

13. Spelling should not be taught by mere drill work.

14. The spelling program should be varied and should provide rich opportunity for expression by the child.

15. Self-guidance is necessary for the pupil to become an independent speller.

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YOU CANNOT ALWAYS "DO IT IF YOU TRY"!

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YOU CAN DO it if you try!" has become almost a byword in our schools and homes as we urge our children to greater effort—often to lose more than to gain. It is hard to say how the idea became so widespread and still could be so wrong. Whoever coined the expression, no doubt, had good reason for doing so. Possibly he wanted to encourage someone who had the required ability to accomplish a task within limits of that ability. And in such case the point of view would be justified: the individual *could* do it if he tried.

But it is dead wrong to say to every child as he approaches each new hurdle that he can conquer it merely by putting forth enough effort. Obviously, every child can *not* do some things, no matter how hard he tries! To tell him he can shakes his faith in you as his teacher or parent and in himself. Not only is it unrealistic to believe such a fallacy, it can be severely damaging to the child involved.

So deeply intrenched in our national attitudes has the concept become that it seems almost un-American to deny it. Somehow we in America have felt all along that anything could be accomplished if we tried hard

enough. The idea has merit, for it spurs on individuals to put forth their maximum effort, and ordinarily that is commendable. But to apply it without thought to every situation faced by every child is to injure as many as are aided.

IDEA NOT ALWAYS APPLICABLE

Here are two examples of situations where the expression does not apply. A music teacher repeatedly tells his eighth-grade pupil in violin-playing that "he can do it if he tries." The child has been practicing the instrument for five years, with mediocre results. He knows in his heart that it is hopeless to expect him ever to become proficient. The teacher knows this, too, but traditionally urges the child to try harder.

At home the violin is a continued source of unhappiness. The boy's parents are even less aware of the reality that the child is tone-deaf and lacks sufficient fine-muscle control to play the instrument. They incite him to greater effort by admonishing him that he is "just not trying." The child, naturally, is completely frustrated. He knows that he is defeated, but he dares not drop the violin lessons be-

cause of the pressures upon him. He comes to hate the instrument (and music in general) and feels deeply resentful toward adults who are forcing him to attempt the impossible. Further than this, he develops unhealthy attitudes toward other important aspects of daily living.

Here is another child with an intelligence quotient of 90, indicating low scholastic ability, and with poor muscular co-ordination. He is an adopted child. His adoptive father, who is a brilliant lawyer, had attended a large university and while there enjoyed the success of starring in football. He is eager for his son to do the same. When school marks and other evidence show that the boy is not doing well, he tells his son that he can do it if he will only try harder—that he must if he is to play varsity football and become a lawyer. All the child need do is try—with an intelligence quotient of 90 and a body incapable of complex muscle co-ordination! Results of such life-long conflict between father's goals and child's abilities can only be surmised.

Throughout the history of our schools we educators, who above all others should have known better, have insisted that every child meet set subject-matter standards for each subject or grade. Fundamentally, we believed that all it took was more effort for slower children to attain the "average" standards. In effect, we have said "although you are not able to read adequately or to do arithmetic

very well, you can always do it if you try."

Yet some children just do not have the level of abstract intelligence that will permit them to learn at the same rate as most others in their group. To expect it is to expect what is humanly impossible—like expecting every adult to high jump six feet in the air just by trying.

Retention of children, making them repeat a grade or subject, partially grows out of the faulty concept that every child can learn what is required if he puts forth enough effort. We still see in effect the indefensible procedure of requiring children to repeat the same grade, year after year, because they have not mastered scholastic standards for their particular grade or subject. The psychological shock at the time, as well as the after-effects of faulty retention practices, cannot be measured, but there is little doubt that injury to mental health is such that many children so retained never fully recover.

At report-card time teachers and parents seemingly conspire to impress the child with the idea that he can do it if he tries. A child receives a poor report card, and, as he leaves the building, his teacher may "encourage" him by telling him that he can do better if he tries. When he arrives home, his parents greet him with the same words. Reports to parents that are based on scholastic achievement alone and that compare the child to standards expected for grade level are difficult to justify in light of many

other objectives that schools are trying to achieve.

There are many areas of activity in school where not every child can be expected to meet the so-called "grade or subject standards." Because of tremendous individual differences among children with regard to intellectual, emotional, and physiological abilities, they are not all capable of equal accomplishment in all skill areas. To imply that each child can do anything "if he sets his mind to it" and that when he does not he is "loafing," or in some other manner failing his parents or teachers, can have unfortunate effects on him.

BAD EFFECTS OF THIS POLICY

Many a child, unable to meet goals set by schools and parents, has been forced to cheat his way through school. Because of a need to maintain self-esteem, if not self-protection, the boy or girl becomes adept at accomplishing by foul means what he cannot achieve fairly. It would be shortsighted to blame the child, alone, for his or her mistake.

Once a child has started to cheat and by that means improved his marks, avoided the censure of esteemed adults, and prevented the removal of valued privileges, the habit is established. It is self-rewarding. To his mind it is also self-justifying, for adults are asking the impossible of him. Unhappily, he does not continue to cheat just in arithmetic or whatever the subject may be. He applies the

practice to other areas of living where effects may be far more important and lasting.

SUGGESTIONS FOR PARENTS AND TEACHERS

Parents and teachers might reasonably ask: "Then shall we discard all standards of achievement and behavior to be expected of children?" "Are we never to urge them on to greater effort?" Surely, the answer to such questions must be "No," for children as well as adults need goals, and to obtain those goals they need encouragement to do the best possible job of which they are capable. Parents and teachers should have a different attitude and use a different method of approach. Rather than tell every child that he can do it if he tries, we should consider the following widely accepted principles before we speak or act.

1. We teachers or parents should not require of all children the attainment of identical standards of achievement. Some children have special skills that should permit them to go far beyond any "average" standards; others have deficiencies that will not permit them to attain those standards. Each must have goals within limits of his ability to accomplish—neither above those limits nor far below.

2. We should arrange tasks children are expected to accomplish in school or at home in accordance with the children's maturity, with their physiological, emotional, and intellectual ca-

pacities to do those tasks. We should make certain that success crowns children's efforts more often than failure. We must not, for example, require a sixth-grade child whose actual reading ability is much lower to read in a book whose vocabulary level is for the "average" sixth-grader. We should not require an eight-year-old girl to do her own ironing at home when about the most she can be expected to do is to keep her clothing hung in neat order.

3. We should not give children marks, all of which are based on scholastic "standards" for their grade level, to the end that some children may feel failure in many areas. We should evaluate each child in terms of his achievement in relation to his individual ability and effort—if he is giving it "all he has" he is encouraged, not labeled a failure. It is true that, sooner or later, he must realize that his ability is not high in certain types of school work, so marks must eventually be given for achievement in relation to grade or subject standards. But at the same time he must be recognized as doing the best that can be expected of him, and be approved for it.

4. We should encourage children to seek attainment in keeping with their special skills and abilities. If a child is physically sound and neuromuscularly co-ordinated, he can be urged to learn to skate, swim, or play ball. But he must be helped, sympathetically and understandingly, *when he needs help*

and not before or after. If a child of normal intelligence is having difficulty with spelling, he should be taken from where he is in his knowledge of spelling and encouraged to grow from there. He should not be kept "trying" at a high difficulty level, only to face perpetual failure.

CONCLUSION

Before we adults try to incite greater effort in children by telling them they can do it if they try hard enough—and, at the same time perhaps, cutting out all movies for a month—we should imagine ourselves in similar situations. Father might ask himself how he would react if someone told him he could earn twenty thousand dollars a year instead of his present five thousand, if he "tried hard enough." Mother might wonder how she would feel if someone told her she could make her husband's suits on a sewing machine if she put enough effort into it. The chances are that neither could do either of these things, no matter how hard he or she tried.

Teachers, too, should imagine what our reactions might be if someone said that we could learn, say, figure-skating, if we put forth enough effort. Most of us would deny that, with practice, we could become adept figure-skaters. There is little difference in the situation that exists when we ask our children to acquire levels of skill that are entirely beyond their capacities.

If those who are responsible for the sound development of children are to enable them to move through the relatively hazardous years of childhood, they must approach their guidance with all the wisdom they can command. If children are to retain confidence in themselves, ambition to

grow in desirable directions, and a love for living, parents and teachers dare not make too many mistakes over too many years of their lives. "You can do it if you try" may be just the thing to say, at times. Then again, it may be just the wrong thing to say!

SELECTED REFERENCES ON TEACHER EDUCATION¹

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THE REFERENCES included in this list treat significant issues relating to the pre-service education of teachers. All were published between July 1, 1952, and June 30, 1953. Similar lists have been published in this journal since 1933. In the selection of these references from the larger number published during the year, preference was given to four types of materials: (1) research studies in the field, (2) critical analyses of important issues in teacher education, (3) reports of promising practices, (4) references which are reasonably accessible.

699. *The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education: Sixth Yearbook*. Oneonta, New York: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (Edward C. Pomeroy, secretary-treasurer, 11 Elm Street), 1953. Pp. 190.

Contains the addresses, reports of committees, and other proceedings of the annual meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education held in Chicago in February, 1953.

700. ARMENTROUT, W. D. "Specialist in Education Degree," *Journal of Teacher Education*, IV (June, 1953), 137-39.

Describes a new degree (Ed.S., Specialist in Education), given at the successful

completion of a six-year program leading to specialization in some area, now being offered at Colorado State College of Education.

701. BANCROFT, ROGER W. "Recruitment for Elementary School Teaching," *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (September, 1952), 193-96.

Summarizes the results of a doctoral study which undertook an "analysis of students entering the State University of New York in 1951 to prepare for elementary teaching with implications for the recruitment program."

702. BARR, A. S., and SINGER, ARTHUR, JR. "Evaluative Studies of Teacher Education," *Journal of Teacher Education*, IV (March, 1953), 65-72.

Examines the types of problems studied and the evaluative techniques employed in research relating to the pre-service education of teachers during the past eleven-year period, and provides a selected bibliography of seventy-nine research studies.

703. BATCHELDER, HOWARD T. "Indiana University's Program of Student Teaching for Prospective Secondary School Teachers," *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (September, 1952), 183-86.

Describes a new program in which prospective teachers devote a full semester exclusively to professional courses, including eight weeks of full-time student teaching.

704. BIGELOW, KARL W. "The Preparation of College Teachers for General Education," *General Education*, pp. 301-28.

¹ See also Item 563 (Monroe) in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1953, issue of the *School Review*.

Fifty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1952.

Analyzes the tasks which a college teacher of general education may reasonably be expected to perform, examines and appraises existing programs of teacher preparation, and offers recommendations for improving programs.

705. BIXLER, LORIN E. "Cooperative Development of Teacher Education and Certification," *Journal of Teacher Education*, IV (June, 1953), 114-17.
Describes a plan in use in Ohio in which questions concerning teacher education are studied co-operatively by the State Department of Education, staff members of teacher-education institutions, classroom teachers, leaders of the Ohio Education Association, and the Ohio College Association.
706. BOND, JESSE A.; HOCKETT, JOHN A.; and OTHERS. *Curriculum Trends and Teacher Education*. Thirty-second Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching. Lock Haven, Pennsylvania: Association for Student Teaching (Allen D. Patterson, secretary-treasurer, % State Teachers College), 1953. Pp. vi+300.
Presents a survey of curriculum trends in American public education and indicates the relations between these trends and the programs for the preparation of teachers. Also contains descriptions of professional programs in twelve representative colleges and universities.
707. BOWMAN, DAVID L. "Applied Economics and Teacher Education," *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (September, 1952), 204-7.
Reviews briefly the Applied Economics Project of the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation and offers suggestions for participation in the project by colleges for teacher education.
708. CARTWRIGHT, WILLIAM H., and HAMILTON, WILLIAM B. (editors). *The Duke University Centennial Conference on Teacher Training*. Historical Papers of the Trinity College Historical Society, Series XXX. Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press, 1953. Pp. viii+120.
Presents the papers given at the Conference on Teacher Training in the Private College and University held on June 24-26, 1952, in commemoration of the one hundredth anniversary of the chartering of the institution which is now Duke University as a college for the training of teachers.
709. CLARKE, C. M. "The Ford Foundation—Arkansas Experiment," *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (December, 1952), 260-64.
Describes the plan which has been agreed upon between the teacher-education institutions of Arkansas and the Fund for the Advancement of Education of the Ford Foundation, and summarizes the reconciliation of what originally developed as a highly controversial proposal.
710. CLAYTOR, M. PULLINS. "State Certification Requirements for Teachers of English," *College English*, XIV (March, 1953). 332-40.
Tabulates and summarizes the legal requirements for certification to teach English in the forty-eight states.
711. CREMIN, LAWRENCE A. "The Heritage of American Teacher Education," *Journal of Teacher Education*, IV (June, 1953), 163-70.
Surveys the history of teacher education in the United States, based on data collected for a more extensive report for a UNESCO conference on teacher education.
712. DICKSON, GEORGE E. "The Crux of an Effective Off-Campus Student-Teaching Program," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXIX (March, 1953), 139-46.
Summarizes the findings of an intensive study—a doctoral dissertation at Stanford University—of human-relations situations

in an elementary student-teaching program.

713. DILLEY, NORMAN E. "Group Counseling for Student-Teachers," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXIX (April, 1953), 193-200.

Describes a plan carried on at the University of Illinois for handling conferences with student teachers in groups and presents in tabular form the kinds of problems brought to the group conferences.

714. EMANS, LESTER M. "Where Are We Going in Teacher Education?" *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (September, 1952), 163-67.

Analyzes thirteen major current trends in teacher education.

715. FIRESTONE, SIDNEY H., and ORLEANS, JACOB S. "The Shortage of Special Class Teachers in Large Cities," *Journal of Teacher Education*, IV (March, 1953), 59-64.

Summarizes the report of a survey conducted in 1951 of need for teachers of handicapped children in 108 cities in the United States with populations of over a hundred thousand.

716. GOODLAD, JOHN I. "Interdepartmental Cooperation in Teacher Education," *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (December, 1952), 256-59.

Describes a plan in operation at Emory University whereby the Division of Education and the other departments work cooperatively in the preparation of teachers.

717. GRIM, PAUL R., and MICHAELIS, JOHN U. *The Student Teacher in the Secondary School*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953. Pp. x+484.

A number of specialists collaborate in offering student teachers a practical guide to understanding and handling their day-to-day work in the classroom.

718. GROSS, CHALMERS A. (editor and compiler). *Implementing Programs of General Education for Teachers*. A Study by the Subcommittee of the Committee on

Studies and Standards of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, O. W. Snarr (chairman). Oneonta, New York: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (Edward C. Pomeroy, secretary-treasurer, 11 Elm Street), 1953. Pp. 60.

Identifies obstacles encountered by colleges and universities in the development of programs of general education for teachers, and offers suggestions for overcoming these obstacles.

719. "Growing up Professionally: A Progress Report to the Profession by the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards," *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (September, 1952), 217-27

Summarizes the progress in 1951-52 toward making teaching a major profession.

720. HARSTEIN, JACOB I., and RUSALEM, HERBERT. "Preparing Teachers for Guidance," *Journal of Teacher Education*, IV (June, 1953), 110-13.

Describes the program in operation in the Department of Education in the graduate school of Long Island University for the preparation of nonspecialist teachers for their guidance duties.

721. HEARN, ARTHUR C. "Case Studies of Successful Teachers," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXVIII (October, 1952), 376-79.

Presents the results of a study of the traits of successful teachers placed by Stanford University in 1947-48.

722. HOOR, MARTEN, TEN. "The Stake of the Liberal Arts College in Teacher Education," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXIX (March, 1953), 80-96.

An analysis of the controversy between "educators" and "academicians" over appropriate programs for the preparation of teachers.

723. INLOW, GAIL M. "The Interview in Selecting Student Teachers," *Journal of*

Teacher Education, IV (June, 1953), 100-105.

Describes the use of the interview in selecting student teachers and presents the results of a study of the value of the interview in predicting success in student teaching.

724. IRISH, ELIZABETH H., and BYERS, LORETTA. "Helping Student Teachers Grow in Democratic Human Relationships," *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (September, 1952), 209-13.

Describes the manner in which human-relationship learning experiences are incorporated in the student-teaching program at Santa Barbara College.

725. JAGGERS, RICHARD E. "Developing Professional Competencies," *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (September, 1952), 173-76.

Reports the results of a two-year cooperative study in which public school representatives, students, and faculty at the State Teachers College in Florence, Alabama, joined in a definition of competencies needed by prospective teachers.

726. JAMRICH, JOHN X. "Current Practices in Courses for the Preparation of Secondary-School Teachers," *School Review*, LXI (May, 1953), 283-89.

Presents the results of an investigation of current practices in conducting general-methods courses in the preparation of secondary-school teachers in 332 colleges and universities.

727. JENSEN, GALE E. "Institute for Teacher Education of Grinnell College," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXVIII (December, 1952), 548-56.

Describes an all-college plan in a liberal arts college for the integration of the resources of the college in the preparation of teachers.

728. KEPPEL, FRANCIS. "Contemporary Issues in the Education of Teachers," *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (December, 1952), 249-55.

An analysis of major factors which have led to differences in points of view held by "academicians" and "educators" with respect to teacher education.

729. KULP, CLAUDE L. "Experiment in Teacher Education: The Ford-Cornell Project," *New York State Education*, XL (March, 1953), 400-401, 458.

Describes a new program, financially supported by the Fund for the Advancement of Education of the Ford Foundation, for the preparation of elementary-school teachers, based on a four-year liberal arts degree plus one year of observation, practice teaching, and seminars.

730. LINDSEY, MARGARET. "What's Right with Teacher Education," *Teachers College Record*, LIV (February, 1953), 285-90.

Appraises trends in teacher education in recent years with an emphasis upon desirable directions and gains.

731. MCGEOCH, DOROTHY M. *Direct Experiences in Teacher Education: A Story of Three Programs*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. Pp. x+212.

Provides detailed descriptions of laboratory or direct experiences in three hypothetical teacher-preparing institutions as they might be operating in 1958.

732. MCGEOCH, DOROTHY M. "Cooperative Planning for Professional Education of Teachers," *Teachers College Record*, LIV (May, 1953), 440-46.

Describes one phase of the program of teacher education at Northern Illinois State Teachers College in which "theory" courses and planned experiences with children are fused.

733. MAGEE, ROBERT M. "Selection of Candidates for Teacher Education," *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (September, 1952), 168-72.

Describes the program and procedures for selective admissions to the teacher-training program at Wayne University.

734. MAUL, RAY C. "Toward Relieving the Teacher Shortage," *Educational Forum*, XVII (November, 1952), 57-68.
Presents the facts on the teacher shortage, analyzes the potential "manpower goals" for new teachers, and offers proposals for increasing the supply of teachers.
735. MAUTH, L. J. "An Evaluation of the 'September Experience,'" *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (September, 1952), 197-200.
Describes the "September Experience" plan carried out at Ball State Teachers College and reports the results of an inquiry into the value of the program.
736. MICHAELIS, JOHN U.; GRIM, PAUL R.; and OTHERS. *The Student Teacher in the Elementary School*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953. Pp. x+434.
A textbook, planned by a group of specialists for use of prospective teachers during student teaching, providing practical suggestions, techniques, and principles that have proved to be helpful to student teachers in both rural and city schools.
737. MILLER, HENRY. "The Role of Group-Work Experience in the Teacher-Education Curriculum," *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (September, 1952), 178-82.
Describes a program of off-campus experience in group work prior to student teaching.
738. "The 1953 Teacher Supply and Demand Report," *Journal of Teacher Education*, IV (March, 1953), 3-45.
Presents the full report of the sixth annual study of the supply of, and demand for, elementary- and high-school teachers in the United States, prepared by the National Education Association research division at the request of the National Committee of Teacher Education and Professional Standards.
739. POOR, GERALD L. "Extern Program Blends Theory and Practice," *Journal of Teacher Education*, IV (June, 1953), 128-30.
Describes a plan in operation at Central Michigan College of Education for giving prospective teachers some experience in the classroom prior to student teaching.
740. RAYMOND, JOSEPH. "Foreign Language Student Teachers' Experiences," *Teachers College Record*, LIV (November, 1952), 83-92.
Summarizes and analyzes fifty reports prepared by student teachers based upon their student-teaching experience.
741. RUGG, HAROLD. *The Teacher of Teachers: Frontiers of Theory and Practice in Teacher Education*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. x+308.
Traces the development of teacher education in the United States, develops the thesis that teacher education has not kept pace with the times, and pleads the case for training of the creative imagination.
742. RYANS, DAVID G., and WANDT, EDWIN. "Investigations of Personal and Social Characteristics of Teachers," *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (September, 1952), 228-31.
Describes studies completed or in progress in the Teacher Characteristics Study sponsored by the American Council on Education and subsidized by the Grant Foundation.
743. SANDS, JOHN E. "Qualifications and Responsibilities of Directors of Student Teaching and of Supervising Teachers," *School Review*, LXI (January, 1953), 34-38.
Presents a general overview of the qualifications and responsibilities of the directors of student teaching and of the co-operating supervising teachers in 112 teacher-training institutions carrying on programs of off-campus student teaching in public co-operating schools.
744. SASMAN, ERWIN H. *Ways of Working To Bring about Desired Change in Teacher Education*. Thirty-first Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching. Lock Haven, Pennsylvania: Association for Student Teaching (Allen D. Patterson,

secretary-treasurer, % State Teachers College), 1952. Pp. vi+244.

Contains descriptive, analytical accounts of ways in which change was brought about in colleges and universities responsible for teacher education.

745. SAYLOR, GALEN, "The Education of Secondary-School Teachers in Western Germany," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXVIII (November, 1952), 393-411.

Analyzes and describes the academic and professional programs for the training of secondary-school teachers in Western Germany.

746. SCATES, DOUGLAS E., and SCATES, ALICE YEOMANS. "Doctor's Theses in Teacher Education: 1951-52," *Journal of Teacher Education*, IV (June, 1953), 143-50.

Presents the second annual listing of recently completed doctor's theses in the field of teacher education, this list containing 136 titles.

747. SCHAEFER, ROBERT J. "Three Teacher Education Programs at Harvard," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXIII (Winter, 1953), 60-64.

Outlines three programs for the Master's degree at Harvard for prospective teachers and describes the relation of these programs to twenty-nine liberal arts colleges which are co-operating in the program under a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education of the Ford Foundation.

748. SNYDER, AGNES. "Conflicting Points of View and Challenges in the Education of Teachers," *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (December, 1952), 243-48.

Analyzes the conflicts between and the viewpoints of the liberal arts colleges and the teachers' colleges in the preparation of teachers.

749. "Teacher Forecast for the Public Schools," *Journal of Teacher Education*, IV (March, 1953), 53-58.

The Research Division of the National Education Association provides estimates

of the number of teachers needed for the public schools through the year 1959-60.

750. TRAVERS, ROBERT M. W.; RABINOWITZ, WILLIAM; and NEMOVICHER, ELINOR. "The Anxieties of a Group of Student-Teachers," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXVIII (October, 1952), 368-75.

Describes a study of the anxieties of 120 student teachers before and after student teaching.

751. UMSTATTD, J. G. "Education of Teachers To Meet the Needs of Youth," *Adapting the Secondary-School Program to the Needs of Youth*, pp. 274-95. Fifty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1953.

Describes the kind of teachers needed and discusses steps which should be taken by institutions which prepare teachers.

752. VANDER WERF, LESTER S. "An Evaluation of Four Approaches to Learning in Teacher-Education Classes," *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (December, 1952), 281-84.

Presents the results of an experiment in which an introductory course in education was taught by four somewhat different methods.

753. WILLCOX, ISOBEL, and BEIGEL, HUGO G. "Motivations in the Choice of Teaching," *Journal of Teacher Education*, IV (June, 1953), 106-9.

Reports a study which attempts to assess the significance of motivational factors in choice of a vocation.

754. WOELLNER, ROBERT C., and WOOD, M. AURILLA. *Requirements for Certification of Teachers, Counselors, Librarians, Administrators for Elementary Schools, Secondary Schools, Junior Colleges 1953-54*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953 (eighteenth edition). Pp. vi+126.

An annual digest of certification requirements in the forty-eight states.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

CLARK E. MOUSTAKAS, *Children in Play Therapy: A Key to Understanding Normal and Disturbed Emotions*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. x+218. \$3.50.

This report on play sessions conducted by the author at the Merrill-Palmer School in Detroit consists mostly of relatively short selections from what must have been very long transcriptions of play interviews. Discussion is brief compared with the space devoted to reproducing the interviews. The principle according to which only certain parts of the interviews were quoted is not stated, and the reviewer is left with that uneasy suspicion evoked by most such reports: that only those excerpts are presented, or those phenomena discussed, that fit the author's particular psychological theory. The chapter called "Play Therapy with a Preschool Family," comprising nearly half the book, consists largely of transcriptions of nondirective interviews with parents and hence is unrelated to what the book's title promises, namely, *children in play therapy*.

This book and other recent publications indicate that a change in philosophy has taken place in the so-called "nondirective, client-centered" therapy. A catharsis, automatically producing therapeutic results, is no longer sufficient; the therapist cannot merely let the patient talk and reflect his statements back to him. Improvement is now viewed as a consequence of the therapist's attitudes as they are conveyed to the patient. Thus, the author says that the child-centered philosophy is concerned not mainly with techniques but rather with that specific relationship which enables the child to grow emotionally. If this is so (and I agree heartily that it is the relationship which produces results), then

one would expect a treatise on child-centered play therapy to concentrate on this relationship, its nature and content, how it is maintained during the vicissitudes of the child's development, how it is at any moment conveyed to the child, and so on. Actually, only some four pages are devoted to discussing this relationship. Faith, respect, and acceptance, the three main attitudes that the therapist must convey to the child according to the author, are not defined, and their presence or absence and their significance in particular situations between child and therapist are not discussed. Faith, the central of these concepts, remains vague—so much so that it seems an appeal is made to the reader's religious feelings rather than to his critical intelligence. Although in the short theoretical discussion the paramount importance of the therapist's attitudes are stressed, throughout the book the case material gives the impression that the totally nondirected cathartic experiences of the child lead to changes in him. The therapist's attitudes (the supposedly main therapeutic factor), instead of being clarified by means of examples, are disposed of by the statement:

The belief is that these attitudes are communicable. They can be transmitted from one person to another. They cannot be taught, but they can be learned [p. 2].

If this is the accepted philosophy of child-centered therapy, one wonders why efforts are still made to teach the unteachable, why courses in client-centered therapy are offered, though this therapy, according to the author, cannot be taught.

Transcriptions of therapeutic sessions show that the therapist, far from being nondirective, exercises strong influence on what the child may bring out and elaborate and

what he is encouraged to repress. Such repressive interference no longer takes the form of such direct statements as "Don't do this" or "That's dirty." It occurs rather in the form of disregarding what the child expresses, of emphasizing some types of behavior and de-emphasizing others—and all this under the appearance of gentle acceptance of the child, which makes the therapist's repressive impact all the more insidious. All the reports illustrate this. In order not to be accused of making arbitrary selections when demonstrating how this is done, I selected the very first reported play session to show how the underlying philosophy and controlling attitude of the therapist influences the relationship from the very beginning, clearly without his awareness since he does not discuss it. The first play session begins in the following way:

CHILD: (*Walks to the nursing bottles. Picks up a bottle and puts it into his mouth. Sucks on nipple for a few seconds, then replaces bottle.*) I want to take another little drink of that.

THERAPIST: You want to have another little drink, hm? [p. 21.]

The therapist reflects back to the child the child's verbal statements, totally neglecting his activity. If he had reflected on this supposedly well-adjusted four-year-old child's activity, he might have said something like, "You want to suck some more from the baby bottle." The significant factor in this child's activity seems to be not his stated wish to drink (a mature age-correct desire and activity) but to suck from the nipple (a regressive desire). By this remark the therapist indicates to the child that he pays attention only to stated desires, and only to those that are socially acceptable, even though the child's activity suggests the existence of contradictory desires. That this influence is not accidental but persistent is shown by what follows immediately.

CHILD: I'm gonna take a big sip this time—a great big one. (*Takes a long drink from the bottle. Replaces bottle on the bench and walks to the dollhouse. Picks up a boy doll figure and a small rubber*

cat. Shouts in a baby voice.) Whoo, whoo, whoo. Meow, meow, meow, meow. (*Holds figures over the roof of dollhouse.*) Kitty gonna jump. Baby gonna jump. Kitty jump down. Baby jump down. See-shee, see-shee, see-shee, see-shee. (*A few minutes later picks up a woman doll.*) She's a Girl Scout, and here she is. She runs with a whip. She runs with a whip.

THERAPIST: Running, running, running [p. 20].

The therapist could have reflected back to the child the drinking from the bottle, or the jumping from the roof, or the "see-shee" emphasized by the child. Instead, he chooses to reflect back only the "normal," socially accepted running activity, disregarding not only these asocial, regressive elements but also the hostile tendencies expressed by the child's emphasis on the whip. Equally neglected is the chance to reflect with the child on what seems to be his peeping or exploratory interest in the female sex suggested by the repeated "see-shee."

From his discussion of this session, it appears that the author is aware of the regressive tendencies of the child as expressed by his sucking. Reflecting to him at this moment only socially acceptable tendencies and ignoring regressive tendencies thus represents a definite decision. I do not question whether or not this is therapeutically wise; all I wish to stress is the high degree to which the therapist is directive. His directiveness shows an absence of that faith in the child which is so strongly asserted as necessary. From the very beginning of the relationship, through his selection and rejection of material, the therapist disregards some needs of the child and emphasizes others.

These interviews, as well as many other reports on client-centered therapy, lead one to believe that the professed noninterference of the therapist hides a continuous process of interference of which the therapist does not become aware. This seems to me the most dangerous aspect of client-centered therapy. Because he does not realize the extent of his interference, the therapist does not submit it to the scrutiny of his conscience or of his

supervisor. Nor is his interference subjected to criticism on the basis of the philosophy underlying the therapeutic system.

The noncritical approach is also seen in the fact that in a book on play therapy the author does not discuss other types of play therapy, including those therapeutic endeavors which led to the creation of play therapy in the first place. Even in the references, the author lists only publications representing his own philosophy.

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GORDON C. LEE, *An Introduction to Education in Modern America*. New York 17: Henry Holt & Co., 1953. Pp. xiv+556. \$4.50.

Gordon Lee's *An Introduction to Education in Modern America* offers an unusual combination of professional topics and problems. The book is not unique, however, in its statement of purpose. It seeks very obviously to contribute to the general information of the public concerning the work of our schools and to assist in the recruitment of potential members of the teaching profession. Of special interest is the claim that youthful students not contemplating the business of teaching should also be in possession of the facts contained in this volume.

The first two parts of the book stress the historical approach to "The Nature of American Society" and the sociological significance of the teaching profession. These present much that we all need to know about the struggle of our forefathers to establish the institutions of which we are profoundly proud today. Parts III and IV deal with the organization and administration of schools, thus extending the student's concept of the need for school principals and superintendents to have managerial ability and official prestige in the community. The quality of

our administrative personnel has been improving continuously and conspicuously. School districts are becoming increasingly proud of the men and women who make themselves responsible for the efficient operation of our elementary and secondary schools.

Part V provides just the right amount of coverage for a book of this type on the subject of teacher training. The reader with a liberal arts background will be pleased with the wide range of knowledge advocated in this volume for those aspiring to a life of study and instruction. Some topics of special appeal are rugged individualism, universal suffrage, internationalism, types of teachers, human progress, personality components, the United Nations, and UNESCO. Parts VI and VII go deep into the heart of the function of public education in a democracy. We predict that readers who press this far will feel rewarded with a sense of the full sweep of the classroom in action throughout our forty-eight states.

Chapter ii reveals "A Portrait of the American People" in a most unusual fashion. The backbone of this description is based on an even dozen questions, which have been well formulated; but it is the reviewer's judgment that these fifteen pages contain an excessive amount of statistical data. However, immature students may be glad to have this quantitative matter massed at this point. If these tables are a superior way of delineating the character of the American people in their current national behavior, then this may prove to have been a sound pedagogical tactic.

Chapter iii, dealing with "The Abiding Principles of American Democracy," is an excellent forerunner for chapter iv, which gives an effective evaluation of the United States as a political, diplomatic, and moral leader in the world of many variegated nations. A sharp contrast is drawn between the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R., with emphasis on four possible choices that face our government and the millions of anxious citizens

whom it represents. These four "alternative patterns of policy" are appeasement, compromise, containment, and productive democracy. Since our schools have to face the facts of life, it is essential that teachers be enlightened in the matter of foreign policy—not only the position and aims of our own country, but also the international objectives of other prominent nations.

In chapter v the educational traditions are invoked by means of a discussion of Christianity, the classical viewpoint, humanism, and "essentialism." Particular attention is given to experimentalism as applied to the curriculum and methodology, and chapter vi supplements this treatment by pointing out the antecedents of experimentalism—empiricism, naturalism, and pragmatism. There seems to be a need here for an explanation of the expanding role of neo-realism, a philosophy that can be correlated with reconstructionism. Chapter vii inserts a timely and intriguing exposition of the constructive benefits derived from philosophical controversy.

Certain theories have evolved in connection with these aspects of American democracy:—cultural pluralism, respect for the dignity of the individual, the pre-eminence of personal welfare, civil liberties, majority rule in relation to minority rights, responsible citizenship, belief in progress, reliance on peaceful change, free education, and social mobility. The implications of these principles suggest a liberal handling of details appropriate for the grasp of the student. Gordon Lee deserves credit for the unit in chapter vii entitled "An anthropological overview of educational purpose," in which he analyzes these crucial subjects: preservation of the social heritage, preparation for adult citizenship, vocational training, improvement of the social order, and the enhancement of leisure.

The reviewer is especially impressed by chapter xxiv on "The Scope of the Educational Task." Pages 456–57 show that we need not be afraid to relate our spiritual life and faith to scientific thinking, where every

teacher must feel at home and demonstrate convincing skill. The author's development of the "Middle road" is too brief, in the light of so much promise associated with this common-sense position, inherently related to modern realism. The "Middle road" attaches itself to a reasonable and practical brand of thinking about the problems of instruction and administration, salvaging the best in creedal idealism and reconciling some of its doctrine with the more justifiable features of pragmatism.

The last chapter works over the main controversial elements intertwined with the problems of academic freedom. The reviewer likes the statements made under the heading of "Freedom To Teach and Learn." The author notes the necessity for every teacher to be informed concerning censorship, loyalty oaths, political activities, and community standards of orthodoxy. Several quotations here prove helpful in support of the theses put forth.

Readers of this book will recognize it as no superficial textbook on teacher orientation but rather as a substantial and attractive addition to the thoughtful literature of our profession.

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R. WILL BURNETT, *Teaching Science in the Elementary School*. New York 16: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. xvi+542. \$5.75.

For some time there has been a great need for a book like *Teaching Science in the Elementary School* to help the many teachers who, with little or no experience and little or no science background, are trying to teach science in elementary-school classrooms.

The book is set up in two parts. Part I, dealing with the place of science in the elementary-school program, is designed to give teachers an idea of the place that science can

hold in the curriculum and of the relation that science can have to the development of skills in reading, writing, and spelling. This part of the book helps the teacher establish for himself a philosophy for teaching science and to have faith in his ability to teach the subject although he may not have an extensive science background.

Part I also deals with science as a potentially influential force in the lives of elementary-school children. It points out that children are naturally interested in the science of their environment and that science can have a strong motivating influence on all learning. Because there is so much science in their immediate environment, children have a need for science information. The author makes the book even more meaningful and helpful to teachers by describing in some detail the teaching methods which one teacher found to be effective, although it is not to be assumed that every teacher would find the same methods the most satisfactory.

Part II not only presents scientific information which a teacher needs at his command as he teaches elementary science, but also describes in some detail firsthand experiences and activities which may be carried on in the classroom as an aid to learning. The information might be used in two ways. Some of it, for example, the material about air, is of such a nature that a teacher might select and adapt certain parts to fit the needs of the pupils at the particular age level which he teaches. Other materials are more helpful to supplement the teacher's knowledge. For example, the material about heredity probably would not be suitable for the great majority of classes at the elementary-grade level. It might serve a need at the junior high school level, but its real use is in helping the untrained science teacher answer children's questions more intelligently.

It is important that teachers realize that there are experiences which they are not fully qualified to give their pupils unless they themselves have a workable background in science. It is important, too, that teachers

untrained in science realize that there are many kinds of experiences that they *can* give to their science classes and that there are ways in which they can build up a useful background for themselves. This book is designed to help the teacher find some of these experiences and to help him acquire a science background.

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VIRGIL A. ANDERSON, *Improving the Child's Speech*. New York 11: Oxford University Press, 1953. Pp. xvi+334. \$4.00.

While preparing this book primarily for the classroom teacher, the author has produced a useful book for parents, child-guidance workers, physicians, and others who are concerned with the development and training of children.

The author did not design this book for specialists in speech and hearing. The content has been deliberately kept simple and nontechnical to enable the general teacher and the parent to "deal effectively with such speech problems as it is wise or feasible for them to handle" (p. v). For speech problems that are too serious to be handled by a person with a limited background in the field of speech and hearing, the author provides instruction and guidance for outside help.

The areas covered by the twelve chapters in this book are "Speech Improvement as an Educational Problem," "The Nature and Development of Speech," "Recognizing Speech Disabilities," "The Child with Delayed Speech," "Articulatory Disorders," "Substandard Speech," "Nasal Speech," "Vocal Disorders," "The Child Who Stutters," "The Child with a Hearing Loss," and "Integrating Speech Training with the School Curriculum."

Chapter i points out the relatively recent emphasis on speech improvement in the modern school. Chapter ii emphasizes the

need for understanding all factors involved in the speech development of children. Chapter iii briefly describes the various types of speech disabilities found among children. This chapter includes speech tests which can be easily administered by parents and teachers, to help them judge more accurately the nature of a child's speech problem. The relation between defective speech and the presence of socially unacceptable traits in children is discussed in chapter iv.

The areas covered chapters v-xi discuss in detail various types of speech disabilities. These six chapters include specific techniques, drill materials, and practical suggestions for helping children with each type of speech problem discussed.

The author's stated objective in the final chapter is "to guide the teacher in making speech improvement and speech correction functional in her program" (p. 299). His approach to integration presents a sound philosophy for speech-training. Better speech is expected of all children, and it is not to be considered as the goal for just those who are receiving special help from a speech correctionist. Many excellent suggestions for integrating speech-training with the regular

school program are provided. These suggestions show *how* speech improvement can be a *part of*, instead of *apart from*, the regular school curriculum.

In reading this chapter, however, one feels the need for an explanation of *why* this kind of integration is important. For example, the need for encouraging carry-over of correct speech habits from speech-training classes into the classroom could have been emphasized more strongly.

As a useful source of information for the classroom teacher and the parent, the book has much to commend it. The main concern is to present, in nontechnical language, basic information about the most common types of speech and hearing problems that require attention in young children. Although it is not intended for professional workers in the field of speech and hearing, they will undoubtedly read it with great interest. They will profit from the usefulness of these chapters as clear reviews of basic principles.

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